

The Nation.

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The Week.

THREE States have held elections this month. In all of them the rural population greatly preponderates. Not one of them contains any city of the first or even second rank in population. One is an overwhelmingly Democratic State in the far Southwest. The other two are strong Republican commonwealths in the extreme Northeast. Arkansas has a slightly larger population than Maine and Vermont combined. It is a State in which the free-silver sentiment has always been very strong. No canvass was made in it by the Republicans. Since the last Presidential election, the payment of a poll-tax has been made a qualification for the exercise of the suffrage. The new test was designed, as in all the Southern States since the war it always has been designed, to reduce the Republican vote. In twenty or more counties of the State, including nearly all of those in which the Republican vote would be large, the Republicans, in defiance of the spirit of the State law, were refused any representation among the election officials. The day after the election, and for a week or more longer, every dispatch from Little Rock reported enormous Democratic gains. Pluralities of seventy-five and eighty thousand were said to be indicated by the returns. The official figures are now in. It appears that the Populist vote of 31,117 in 1892 has been reduced to 13,989. This means, of course, that 17,000 Populists who in 1892 supported their own ticket, have been reconciled to the Democratic party by the declarations of the Chicago platform and by the nomination of Mr. Bryan. In spite of this large reinforcement, the Democratic vote, which was 90,115 in 1892, is only 1,009 larger in 1896. On the other hand, the Republican vote, in spite of the election methods and of the poll-tax qualification, has increased 1,742, so that even in Arkansas there has been a net Republican gain—trifling, it is true, but still a gain. The fair method of comparison, however, between the results of the two elections is to consider the Populist and the Democratic vote together on the one side and the Republican vote on the other. So considered, the anti-Republican forces in 1892 polled 121,232 votes; in 1896 they polled but 105,113 votes. Their majority over the Republicans in 1892 was 87,588; in 1896 it was but 69,727—a loss of 17,861, and this figure probably represents the number of sound-money Democrats who declined to vote their party ticket this year. Even in Arkansas, therefore, something like twenty per cent. of the Democratic vote cannot be polled

for the nominees of the Chicago convention.

In Maine and Vermont the total Republican vote polled this year was 136,971, as against 106,527 four years ago—a gain of 30,444. The total Republican vote in these States this year is 9,000 greater than was ever before polled in them at any election by any party. The total Democratic vote in the same States, which in 1892 was 74,294, has fallen to 49,746—a loss of 24,448, or very nearly one-third. Never since the Republican and Democratic parties have faced each other, has so small a Democratic vote been polled in these States in the year of a Presidential election. The heaviest Republican plurality ever before given in them was 47,729, in 1868. This year the plurality amounts to 87,225, or nearly double that of twenty-eight years ago. Taking the three States together, it appears that a Democratic plurality of 24,000 in 1892 has been changed into a Republican plurality of 31,500 in 1896. It was said just after the Arkansas election that it answered Vermont. The facts show that the answer was an echo. Indeed, the result in Arkansas points to the overwhelming overthrow of the free-silver forces perhaps even more certainly than did the outcome in Maine and Vermont, for it shows not only that in the East and in New England is the Democratic party weaker than it was four years ago, but that it cannot this year poll its entire vote even in those sections of the country in which free silver has for a score of years been a part of the local party creed.

Neither the Vermont nor the Maine election casts any light upon the probable strength of the Palmer and Buckner ticket in November. In Vermont there was no Democratic gold-standard ticket, and in Maine the one which was nominated could not be got on the official ballot, so that anybody who wished to vote it had to write the names. Even with this immense disadvantage to contend against, Mr. Clifford received 567 ballots, which is almost exactly 1 per cent. of the Democratic vote of 55,078 at the corresponding election in 1892. If it had been as easy to vote for Mr. Clifford as for the Republican candidate, he would undoubtedly have been supported by more than one Democrat in a hundred, as many would have gone to the polls for that purpose who stayed away as it was. At the same time the prevailing feeling among those Democrats who rejected Bryanism with indignation, was to make their opposition as effective as possible by swelling the majority for the Republican candidate; and this seems to be the prevailing tendency among voters of that class throughout the North at present.

The Buffalo "Democratic" convention "completed its work" by adopting a platform which declares virtually that all previous platforms of the party for a quarter of a century have been lies, and by putting in the field for Governor a man who could not accept the nomination without either repudiating the platform or repudiating his own utterances of three months ago. This astonishing performance by a great party is excused and defended on the ground that in no other way could the organization be held together for future work. It is confessed that overwhelming defeat at the polls is expected, but that is thought to be of small moment compared with the preservation inviolate of the principle of "party regularity." Though Senator Hill held aloof from the convention, there seems to be no doubt that he directed its action, and that both the platform and the ticket are the results of his orders. It is even intimated that he will himself support the ticket, and will also support Bryan and Sewall, taking the ground that as an uncompromising bimetallist and unswerving Democrat he has no other course to follow. This would be the only logical course for Mr. Hill. The Buffalo convention was the natural fruit of his eleven years of party leadership in this State. He it is who has reduced the party organization to such a level that it is not ashamed to have Sheehan, the Buffalo defaulter, for a leader, or to sit in a convention with Tom Grady as presiding officer, or to go into the campaign with Danforth, the canvasser of illegal election returns, as chairman of its State committee, on a platform which favors repudiation and national dishonor and business chaos, and with a candidate for Governor who has not sufficient self-respect to refuse to stand on a platform which favors what he has denounced as unpatriotic and dishonorable.

Mr. John Boyd Thacher wishes it to be understood that he is himself the sole author of the letter which has made him the most despicable candidate that ever ran for high office in this State, and he should be allowed to have his way about it. He has made it impossible for either Bryan or anti-Bryan Democrats to vote for him, and, standing before the people of the State in this isolated attitude, he declares with great vehemence: "No human being on God's footstool knew anything about that letter except John Boyd Thacher." What is the matter with him? Why, bimetalism. He says he has not declared for gold, neither has he declared for silver, but that he stands for bimetalism, international bimetalism. The fact that the present campaign is a square fight between gold and silver does not bother

him at all. "I don't care four cents about being elected Governor; I want to be right in this matter." It is useless to try to understand Thacher, to explain his conduct by applying rational tests to it. If you will look in his eye, you will detect there that far, vague look which is said to characterize the eyes of most incurable bimetallicists. The trouble with him is fundamental.

An attempt is made in the Buffalo Bryan Democratic platform to get up a State issue on the repeal of the Raines liquor-tax law, but it cannot succeed. It will be impossible to repeal or change the law in the next two Legislatures, because the Senate holds over for two years longer, having been elected for three years. It is a strongly Republican body and the Raines law is a strong Republican measure, and as such will not be meddled with. The members of the next Assembly, and their successors also, will be powerless to effect any change in the law, and it will be useless to endeavor to make such a proposition an issue in their election either this year or next. The Raines law is, in fact, a fixture for more than two years, and all efforts to get rid of it in the meantime will be wasted energy. It is, furthermore, working with far greater general satisfaction than was expected. The liquor-dealers seem reconciled to it, and even our alarmed German citizens do not make any complaints. As an issue it will play no part in this year's campaign, and cannot be counted upon to keep the Republican majority much below 200,000.

Tom Watson must have been delighted at the revelations made by the *Tribune* on Friday morning about his "hated rival" for the Vice-Presidency on the Bryan ticket, or rather tickets. Mr. Sewall recently took the contract for carrying four ship-loads of timber from Maine to Long Island City, and insisted upon having this clause inserted in it:

"The party of the second part agrees to pay to said party of the first part, or agent, for the transportation of said timber dollars and cents, United States gold, or its equivalent."

Nor is this an isolated case. The *Tribune* has also discovered that one of Mr. Sewall's ships has been chartered to the Standard Oil Company, and has just loaded a cargo of case oil at Philadelphia for Japan, and that this clause appears in her contract of affreightment:

"The party of the second part agrees to pay to said party of the first part or agent, for the use of said vessel during the voyage aforesaid, ...cents, United States gold, on each and every case delivered."

At best, Sewall with his known record was an absurd candidate for Vice-President on a platform declaring for 53-cent silver dollars, but when it is found that he insists upon 100-cent gold dollars in

his own business, only Tom Watson's vocabulary is equal to the demands of the situation.

As a contribution to financial and economic thought, the following utterance of Mr. Bryan, made in Kentucky on Tuesday week, is the most remarkable yet offered even by him:

"If any man in this community would offer to buy all the eggs produced at 25 cents a dozen, and was able to make good the offer, nobody would sell eggs for less, no matter what the cost of production, whether 1 cent or 5 cents a dozen. So with silver. Free coinage would establish the market price of silver at \$1.29, and nobody would sell it for a cent less."

Why limit the price of eggs to 25 cents and of silver to \$1.29? If the reasoning is sound, the price in each case might easily be doubled, and the consequent benefit to the human race correspondingly increased. And why stop with eggs and silver? Why not mark up the price of everything you wish to buy, offer to pay double or treble what is asked for it, and keep on paying that price to all comers—hold it there? That's all you have to do—hold it there. "Nobody would sell it for a cent less," says Bryan, so long as you held it. "So with silver." And the man who is putting forth such thought as this is a candidate for the Presidency of 70,000,000 of people in the closing years of the nineteenth century!

The Populist platform demands the acquisition by the Government of all the railroads in the country, in order that the "tyranny and political power" of those corporations, which result in the impairment, "if not the destruction," of the citizen's "political rights and personal liberties," may themselves be destroyed. The system which is to be acquired consists, according to *Poor's Manual*, just issued, of roads owing \$5,640,942,567 in bonds, and \$840,000,000 of current and unfunded debt. The owners of it have stock put down as worth \$5,182,121,999. It is the stockholders of whose tyranny the Populists complain; whatever power the railroads have is wielded by directors and Presidents who are selected by and are themselves stockholders. To judge by *Poor's* pages, their devotion to tyranny has the peculiar result of producing the most shocking effects on their own income. In the last year they paid 4.25 per cent. interest on the bonds they owed, keeping for themselves only 1.59 per cent. on their stock. In 1894 they got 1.64; in 1888, 1.77. A disinterested love of tyranny is a novelty; but it must certainly be stamped out at all hazards. It is not for anybody's real interests that tyranny should increase as dividends decline. A tyrant who will take 1.59 per cent. for the sake of tyranny will never let liberty thrive even if he has to take less; and there are roads which have gone so far as to take nothing at all.

An illuminating glimpse into the constituents of "the money power" is afforded by an analysis of the depositors in a savings bank of Dubuque, Ia., which has 7,614 accounts, representing \$4,000,000. These 7,614 persons are classified as follows: mechanics and laborers, 5,120; farmers, 1,207; teachers and professional men, 632; administrators and executors, 604; capitalists, 51. Still another glimpse is furnished in this statement by an exceptionally well-informed citizen of Franklin County, Mass., a county composed almost entirely of small farming towns, in a recent address to the "plutocrats" of that region who have loaned money on Western mortgages; "From data that I have obtained, I believe that not less than \$3,000,000 of Franklin County money is to-day invested in Western farm mortgages, and that two-thirds of this belongs to farmers now in active life." With these revelations as to the character of "the money power" should be put an incident illustrative of the class of farmers in the West who are not deluded as to the source of their troubles, and who have no notion of trying to cheat their creditors out of half that they owe them. A savings bank in Windham County, Vermont, holds a small mortgage on a farm in Kansas—the money that went West being very likely the savings of a farmer in the Green Mountain State. The Western farmer recently sent the six months' interest due on his loan, and added in a postscript that he "did intend to send some principal on this pay-day, but the free-silverites are raising the very devil with business here in Kansas, and for a fact all over the West, and prices for all farm products are ruinous."

We have received a number of inquiries as to the redemption of silver dollars by the Treasury Department. So far as the statutes are concerned under which the present silver dollars have been coined, the dollars are not redeemable in any other coin or currency. The Treasury, moreover, has not made a practice of exchanging gold for silver dollars on demand. But this is because no test case has actually arisen, chiefly for the reason, as Mr. Carlisle has lately pointed out, that the supply of silver currency in existence has been limited. We were very near to something of a crisis in this regard in 1884 and 1885, when the pressure of silver coin or certificates in payment of dues to the Government, plainly menacing the maintenance of the gold reserve against legal tenders, was finally relieved only by Secretary Manning's very able management of the currency. Mr. Manning withdrew the legal-tender notes of small denominations, replacing them with certificates for large denominations. This void in the smaller currency was then filled by silver certificates in ten-dollar denominations or less. The certificates, by this process, were kept in permanent

circulation outside the Treasury, for use in small exchanges. The law which may be construed as guaranteeing the maintenance of our silver currency at its face value in gold, is the clause in the silver-purchase act of 1890 wherein it is declared to be "the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other." This declaration was reaffirmed, as Mr. Carlisle points out in his letter of Tuesday week, in the act of November 1, 1893. Mr. Carlisle concludes from both these acts that whenever "the silver dollar cannot be kept equal in purchasing power with the gold dollar, except by receiving it in exchange for the gold dollar, when such exchange is demanded, it will be his [the Secretary's] duty to adopt that course." The Secretary is, however, entirely right in adding that such a demand is quite improbable.

Mr. G. Bernard Shaw writes entertainingly and suggestively in the September *Cosmopolis* of the late International Socialist Congress. That it made itself a laughing-stock in so many ways is a manifest gain. "I, the Socialist, am no longer a Red Spectre; I am only a ridiculous fellow." The change is a welcome one for society in general, and it ought to be even for the Socialists, as it insures them much more indulgence and unconcerned hearing than they have enjoyed. As for the disorder and clashing and wild beating of the air which marked the London Congress, Mr. Shaw forcibly says that they were no more than what might have been expected from a body irresponsibly assembled and without any mandate or executive power. The Italian and French Chambers, the House of Representatives of the United States, and latterly even the House of Commons are not in a position to throw stones at the Socialists for disorder. But it is in the analysis of the mental attitude of Socialists that Mr. Shaw is most happy. Most of their working ideas are delusions. "They still see the social problem not sanely and objectively, but imaginatively, as the plot of a melodrama, with its villain and its heroine, its innocent beginning, troubled middle, and happy ending. They are still the children and the romancers of politics."

The Italian statistician Luigi Bodio, in a letter to the Cobden Club, makes a striking exposition of the folly of the protectionist and paternalistic policy of Continental Europe during the past twenty years. Great sums have been spent by the state on railroads and other means of international commerce, and yet tariff laws have been framed ingeniously to make international commerce impossible or unprofitable. The real advantage of the European manufacturer and agriculturist over his competitors in America and in the Orient is in the abundance of capital at a low rate of interest. But this

advantage the Governments of Italy and France have deliberately thrown away. By their system of vast and increasing state expenditures, they have so increased taxation as to more than make up for the lower rates of interest they have to pay. What does it profit the French farmer to be able to borrow money at 3 per cent. as compared with the 6 or 7 which his American competitor has to pay, if his taxes are made three or four times what they used to be, and what they should be, by lavish public outlay? This, as Signor Bodio affirms, is one of the worst forms of socialism, and prevents industry and agriculture from profiting as they might by abundant capital and reduced taxes.

When defining, or deftly refusing to define, in the Commons the objective of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition up the Nile, Secretary Chamberlain said that the aim was to go towards Dongola, but whether they went as far as that point or beyond it would depend upon the amount of "resistance" encountered. As Dongola was taken on Saturday practically without any resistance whatever, there is no reason on that score why the advance should pause there. Nor is there any likelihood that it will. The reconquest and holding of the Sudan was doubtless the intention from the first, and though there was more or less shuffling about it in the beginning, it is now pretty well understood. And there seems no probability of any effective protest against the movement as long as all goes prosperously. The country made little response at the time to Mr. Morley's attack on Salisbury's disingenuous and somewhat sinuous Egyptian policy, and is secretly, no doubt, rather glad to have the African success to set over against the Turkish humiliations. Certainly the original excuse given for the expedition has now been entirely abandoned. Who talks any more of a demonstration in aid of the Italians, or cares whether Kassala is evacuated or not?

Cholera has been a far deadlier foe than the Dervishes to the Anglo-Egyptian expedition up the Nile, and the account of the way in which the disease was faced and vanquished makes interesting reading for the laity as well as for the profession. In brief, the method followed was that of isolation, disinfection, sanitation. There was no pretence of establishing a quarantine. There could not be, as troops and transports had constantly to pass through infected districts in order that the preparations for advance might go on. Surgeon Galloway, an experienced cholera-fighter, was put in charge, and at every camp where cholera broke out he would say, "We ought to be ashamed of ourselves if we cannot stamp it out in ten days." He was able to do so in nearly every case, though the men had often to be flogged or threatened with shooting to keep them from poisoning themselves with the germ-laden water

of the Nile. Even at Wady Halfa, where a large civilian population of filthy habits, ignorant and superstitious, added to the difficulties of the situation, the epidemic, though more severe than elsewhere, was held in check and finally extinguished. Everywhere Galloway Bey and his staff of English and Egyptian medical assistants went on the supposition that the cholera germ was a definite thing, taken into the system in definite ways, and with a definite period of incubation. This made the treatment definite and precise and successful. But there are doubtless thousands of people in New York who would be as ready now as they were in 1892 to regard a case or two of cholera on an incoming steamer as a thing to be shrieked over and fled before, instead of being calmly treated by the methods of rational medicine.

The Pope has at last decided, or his theologians have decided for him, that Anglican orders are absolutely invalid, and that there is nothing for it but a return to the Catholic fold. This is a somewhat amusing anti-climax to the huge row kicked up by the Nonconformists last June over Gladstone's letter on this subject to Cardinal Rampolla. They called it "a miserable trifling with Rome," but the result shows that Rome, for her part, is not at all to be trifled with. The Nonconformists, in fact, could have asked for nothing better than thus to have High Church pretensions stamped upon by the Higher Church. Many Anglican bosoms will doubtless be wrung at this dashing of their hopes; but the great mass of the English clergy will very likely say that, if the Pope does not approve of them, neither do they approve of him, and so that score is even.

A new Carlist agitation in Spain appears imminent. The Carlist Deputies walked out of the Cortes a few days ago, in indignation, real or pretended, at the vote extending railway charters and privileges, and on Monday their party published a manifesto. What these divine-right monarchists want, or say they want, is "administrative and economical decentralization," and they also propose that no official in Spain shall draw his salary until the soldiers in Cuba and the Philippines are paid. All this is certainly ominous. The Carlists have been very patient and loyal, ostentatiously saying that all hope differences must be sunk in the face of the Cuban peril. Like the Spanish Republicans, they have professed to be willing to join forces with any Government in order to put down the Cuban rebellion. But they now seem to be losing both patience and hope. The chance to improve their political fortunes in this time of the country's troubles is too good to be forborne much longer. In Spain's multiplying embarrassments, a Carlist uprising might well prove to be the final push into chaos.

THE SECRET OF MONEY.

THERE is probably nothing stranger in the bimetallic and the silver movement than the fact that money has been from the beginning a human invention for human convenience, and never has been regulated, shaped, or directed by any government successfully. Since the use of cowries and wampum, money has been the creature of human desires and tastes, and all attempts to do anything with it but follow human inclinations about it have surely failed miserably. No attempts to make people use currency in some way they did not like, have succeeded, and no attempt to affix to gold and silver a value, positive or relative, that was not the market value, has succeeded either. All we know about currency we know from history. We can tell nothing about gold and silver except by seeing what men have done about it in times past. The way the human mind acts on media of exchange contains the whole science of money. "Gresham's law," so called, for instance, is no more "Gresham's law" than the law of gravitation is "Newton's law." What Gresham did was to observe the way in which the mind regarded two kinds of currency of unequal value and report it. He did not say whether it was good or bad, wise or foolish. He simply said it existed. When the Bullion Committee in England was set to discover why inconvertible paper and gold differed in value in 1810, what it found out was not anything in the nature of gold or the nature of paper, but the manner in which the minds of dealers regarded gold and paper; and it reported accordingly.

All treatises on currency or money, from the earliest days to our time, are of no value except to explain to us how the human mind acted on certain phenomena. All that economists and financiers have ever said about currency, which is of any value, is simply the record of what people have done about the standard of value. If a college professor is examining students about money, he asks: What happens if certain things occur in the money market or any other market, and how do you know? The only answer is: We know simply that such things have occurred already, under similar circumstances. All finance is, in short, history, and so is nearly all political economy. If any political economy is more than history, it is simply prophecy. Every government which has ever sought to impose a currency of some kind for its own purposes, has found that the people would have their own way by putting a discount on the Government money and having their own medium of exchange on which they made their calculations.

It is the same with the price of all commodities as with gold and silver. Things are cheap simply because people do not want them much; dear because they want them a good deal. They are not dear or cheap because some politician or dictator

says they ought to be cheap or dear. In fact, cheapness and dearness, both of gold and silver and of everything else, are states of mind. They are not qualities or things. There was an attempt made in 1890 to persuade the people that things ought to be dear because dearness was "American," but it only produced ridicule. Dearness and cheapness remained dependent on human desires, not on national polity. No matter how holy a cause may be, it cannot raise prices one iota.

We are now witnessing, both here and in Europe, the first attempt ever made in the history of currency to provide people with money against their will, in virtue of superior wisdom. All other attempts made by governments to provide currency for the people against their will as manifested in prices, have resulted either from a desire to cheat or to provide revenue or to show their power. We have to-day in America, England, and Germany a large body of persons rarely engaged in business, or familiar with exchange, who have undertaken to get mankind to take a new departure and fix prices, not by human inclination, but by international agreement. This makes the silver and bimetallic movement something new in finance. They have determined that money should not any longer be the product of human tastes and desires, but the product of a treaty made by philosophers and statesmen. They are to furnish the nation, not with natural money, but with artificial money—that is, an entirely new kind of money, which will not depend on the cost of production and will have nothing to do with people's likes and dislikes. It will be thought out, so to speak, rather than issued or coined. Silver will be cheap, and gold will be dear, not because silver is plenty and gold is scarce, but because professors and economists can settle what gold and silver ought to cost. The quantity produced of either by labor will have nothing to do with the price at all. The price of either in relation to each other will be settled between a few dozen men, who will decide what price will be best for human happiness. They will meet in a room, and say one ounce of gold ought to cost sixteen ounces of silver, or it ought to cost forty, as may seem to be best. Human desires will have nothing to do with the matter.

This change in the mode of making money and settling prices will be something completely new in the history of the human race. It will be a complete revolution in human affairs. The standard of value will either be settled by a majority vote or by an agreement between plenipotentiaries. The members of Congress, or the diplomatists, will let the merchants and bankers and dealers who have things to sell, know how much they ought to get for their wares; and their minds will be kept in a state of equilibrium by statute. If they find

themselves valuing gold too high, they will check their desires and moderate them to a wise proportion with silver, while if they find themselves placing too little value on silver, they will piously raise their estimate for it to the recognized and happy ratio of the philosophers. We do not believe any such revolution has been attempted in human affairs before. If successful, and the influence of human tastes and desires on prices can be destroyed, and conventional prices substituted therefor, four dimensions of space will at last have a chance.

LEGISLATION DE MINIMIS.

THE attention of Americans has frequently been called in recent years to the increasing floods of local legislation. They are wakening State legislatures and Congress alike, and are multiplying statute-books at a rate which will soon make a new Omar necessary to deliver us. From the successive "State Library Bulletins" published at Albany, with their comparative summaries of legislation in the several States, we have had an impressive annual hint as to the way the time and strength of our legislatures are wasted on minor local affairs. The present Governor of New Jersey was the first public officer in high authority to come out against the growing evil. By his open threat to use the veto on the petty back-yard bills, and by an actual use of it on many such measures, he succeeded in keeping down the mustard-seed laws in New Jersey to unwontedly small, if still too swollen, proportions.

But the plague is not one from which we alone suffer. All English-speaking nations and legislatures seem to be succumbing to it. The extent of its ravages across the seas may be seen from a glance at the "Review of the Legislation of the British Empire in 1895," published in the first number of the new *Journal of Comparative Legislation*. Here in summary form we have a classification of the acts not alone of the English Parliament, but of all the colonies from the least to the greatest. It is a comprehensive survey, from which perhaps the strongest impression one derives is that of the extraordinary demands made upon parliaments, both imperial and colonial, upon cabinets and councils, prime ministers and high commissioners and governors, by minor affairs that could be much better disposed of by a local administrator.

The very ratio between public and local bills is suggestive. The first session of the English Parliament in 1895 passed 44 acts which could be called general, but its local acts numbered 158. In the short second session the figures were 6 and 15, respectively. Specimens of the bills classified as "general" show over what miserable details the wits and time of the Commons are wasted. Thus there had to be much debate over the nice question whether laundries should be regarded as

factories. After long wrestling with the Market Gardeners' Compensation Act, it was triumphantly voted that the landlord's consent was not necessary in order to allow a tenant to set out a currant-bush. With such bills as these set down as measures of general public interest, it may be imagined what back-country and cross-roads affairs the laws conceded to be local really were.

The exact figures for the several colonies are not given; but the showing would doubtless be worse rather than better, as the Prime Minister in England has a more rigid control over legislation, and exercises it more relentlessly, than is the custom in colonial parliaments. At any rate, one look at the kind of thing which engaged the attention of the latter in 1895 is enough to make the proverb *De minimis non curat lex* appear ridiculous. Many necessary and useful bills were doubtless passed, but the swarm of acts straining at gnats and aiming at the impossible is simply prodigious. Take the mere matter of animal pests. Vermin seem fairly to crawl over this index of colonial legislation. South Australia amended its Vermin Act so as to impose penalties on corporations and districts "which are negligent in suppressing rabbits." Beetles had the floor in the Straits Settlements, and locusts buzzed about the ears of legislators in Natal. The registration of dogs took up the time of the New Zealand Solons, while rabbits and marsupials fairly revelled in the legislative halls of Tasmania, South Australia, and Queensland. Sierra Leone made a unique record in its ordinance against the Human Leopard Society.

A good example of the way in which laws expect executive officers to make omniscience their foible is furnished in the West Australian statute entitled the Engine Sparks Fire-Prevention Act. Among many other provisions it is ordered that every engine shall be equipped with a "spark-arrester," and that the pattern of it is to be determined "by the Governor in Council." Imagine the Governor in Council gravely passing on spark-arresters! What is really needed is an arrester of absurd and petty laws. Of like genus is the law making it the duty of magistrates in Fiji to determine whether a given man is "of confirmed intemperate habit," so as to be a "prohibited person" to whom it is a crime to sell liquor. But New Zealand has outstripped all other lands in audacity in its Institute of Journalists Act, whereby, under the authority of the Governor in Council, such monstrous undertakings as the following are to be lawful:

"Devising measures for testing the qualifications of candidates for admission to professional membership of the Institute [of Journalists] by examination on theory and in practice or by any other actual and practical tests."

"The ascertainment of the law and practice relating to all things connected with the journalistic profession, and the exercise of supervision over its members when engaged in journalistic duties."

We need not point out that where such things begin, liberty ends.

It is, of course, a powerful stream of political and legislative tendency in the Anglo-Saxon race which, in these latter days, thus spreads itself into so many ineffective tricklings in the sand. We want to leave nothing to the discretion of an executive officer. Everything must be down in black and white. We prefer to have the most complex and conflicting maze of laws, to be fought over in the courts, instead of a short and simple order to a local administrator to do the work required. In that way, we think, we guard ourselves against abuses of power and against that tyranny which is our inherited but unreasonable dread. What we most need to guard against now is the abuse of law, and the tyranny of a mass of statutes which no one can understand, which dissipates official responsibility and breaks down legislatures. What we need is, for example, to lay a mandate on a competent man, "Clean the streets of this city," without doing our best to tie his hands and spoil the work by making laws to fix the wages he must pay, to compel him to choose his assistants in certain ways, and by all the other statutory contrivances which leave us a fine degree of Anglo-Saxon liberty, but with it a lot of Turkish streets. There is clearly a call for reposing greater trust as well as exacting sharper responsibility in local administration of all sorts; and the work bids fair to be helped on by the growing absurdity of the other method which is strangling itself and us all in the endless meshes of red-tape legislation.

THE DYNAMITERS.

THE steady persistence of the new ministry in England in not doing the things which they said they would do if they got into power, and in doing the things which people thought they were sure not to do, is among the remarkable phenomena of recent English politics. One of the things of all things which they were considered sure not to do, was to let the Irish dynamiters out of jail. During the last year or two of Mr. Gladstone's administration, in fact, hostility to everybody and everything Irish was "the thing" in English circles of the Tory class. The principal reason for not conceding home rule was the badness of the Irish. They were all dynamiters or sympathizers with dynamite, and one of the horrors and disgraces of the Gladstonian régime was that Gladstonian ministers, deigned to consult with and be on friendly terms with the Irish members. Indeed, the reason given by Mr. Macdonald of the *Times* for believing that Pigott's Parnell letters were genuine, that "they were just the kind of letters Parnell would write," was a fair expression of the mental condition of the whole Tory party about the whole Irish party. Mr. Balfour rose into fame by treating its members of

Parliament as common criminals and putting them into prison dress, and dogging their footsteps with spies, and getting a priest indicted for murder because a policeman was killed by a mob who were resisting the priest's arrest; and by making himself the foremost apostle of the doctrine that nothing but coercion would maintain order in Ireland.

No sooner had the Tories got into office, however, than their tune was changed. The new Irish Secretary, Mr. Balfour's brother, was as sweet and conciliatory towards the Irish as Mr. John Morley. Light railways and an amended land act were substituted for jails, and the Irish began to be consulted and complimented, and their amendments accepted. The climax was reached when Mr. Chamberlain, on getting over here, loudly advertised the ability of the much-abused "Tim" Healy. But there was one thing which it was thought they could not possibly do, and that was release the Irish dynamiters. They might pass acts which they had denounced as "immoral" and robbery when they were framed by the Gladstonians, but for the dynamiters there was no hope. When an application for their release was made to Mr. Asquith, and he firmly refused it, the applause was louder on the Tory benches than on the Liberal. It showed that there was still some decency left, it was said, among the Liberals—that Mr. Asquith was not as bad as the rest of them.

Well, having got into power, they have done this accursed thing themselves. The Irish dynamiters have been set free by the Tory Home Secretary. They were not set free, however, until Parliament was on the point of adjourning, when inquiry and explanation were impossible. When Sir Mathew White Ridley is privately asked the cause of this step, he says it is the result of a medical report on the health of the prisoners; but he does not publish the report. The newspapers of all parties have wondered and surmised over the matter for a fortnight, but no light has appeared for some time. It is extraordinary, unaccountable, says the Marquis of Londonderry, a firm supporter and admirer of the Government. He cannot understand it. The time at which it occurred was most mysterious. He delights in the Conservative Government, and did his best to bring it into power, but this is really too much, he says. Other influential members of the Tory party flout equally at Sir Mathew White Ridley's explanation. It is absurd.

According to the latest accounts, the murder is now out. Four notorious but very drunken Irish dynamiters, including Tynan, or "No. 1," have been arrested with a full line of bombs, explosives, infernal machines, and incriminating documents. They explained their plans openly in the various hotels where they stopped, when they were "full"—and they were generally "full," their expenditure on alcoholic drinks in one place being not

less than \$10 per day. Their plan was to hire a house opposite St. James's and Buckingham Palaces and dig a tunnel under the street; then, when the Czar and Czarina of Russia were there on a visit, to blow up these two sovereigns, together with the Queen and all the royal family. They were just about to begin their hellish labors when they were arrested. Their plan was either "a gigantic plot" or "a foul mission." It was instigated partly by the Clan-na-Gael, partly by the Anarchists, and partly by the Nihilists.

We now see why the Irish dynamiters were released. It has been alleged, for want of any better reason, that they have been liberated because one of them had given information which led to the arrest of Tynan and the others; and in order not to "give him away," by releasing him alone, the other three were allowed to go out with him. This unfortunately leaves us in some bewilderment as to the management of the prison in which the dynamiters were confined. These worthies were convicted in 1883, and under published rules are kept in close confinement, and can receive and write only letters which are read by the wardens. They might tell the jail authorities what kind of man Tynan and his associates are, but they could have known that he was going to blow up the royal family and the Czar and Czarina of Russia, about this time, only by means of frequent communication with him. So that if they have been able to give the information that led to his arrest, they must have heard from him recently. If all this be correct, it is a curious revelation about the state of prison discipline. Who knows but Mr. Asquith was keeping hold of the dynamiters to supply him with news about Tynan, and that Tynan was warned not to blow up any palace till the Tories got into power?

ENGLAND AND RUSSIA.

THERE seems to be a general agreement in England that the chief reason why the Powers refuse to join in action against the Porte, is jealousy of Great Britain, probably stimulated by her occupation of Egypt. Russia appears more than any other Power to be an obstacle to any sort of union, but Germany is not far behind. Her reluctance to move is probably a tradition of Bismarck's policy in 1877, when he said he was not willing to risk a single Pomeranian grenadier on behalf of the Bulgarians. The whole situation is so clearly a consequence of past British policy that it might almost form the subject of a course of college lectures. For sixty years—in fact, one might almost say, ever since the battle of Waterloo—Russia has been treated as the one historic enemy of Great Britain. She took the place of France, almost immediately after the peace of 1815, as the Power whom true-born Britons were bound to

hate and suspect, and down to the Crimean war and the Indian mutiny the British press teemed with exposures of her designs on British India.

Men like Sir Henry Rawlinson made a specialty of this subject, and hundreds of maps showed the way in which she was to pass the mountains and rouse the Hindus. As she advanced in the East, the alarm gradually grew greater, and reached its maximum after her subjugation of the Central Asian principalities. This subjugation was really a very marked gain for British India, for it is always a gain for any community to have civilized instead of barbarous neighbors. But, strange to say, so far was the British public from taking this view that, almost ever since 1820, the time and money which should, one would think, have been spent in making friends with Russia, and seeing that, if she ever did become a neighbor, she should be a good one, have been spent in bullying or cajoling Afghanistan so as to make her hostile to Russia, and thus interpose what is called a "buffer" between the two great Powers. The Afghan war of 1839-42 was undoubtedly undertaken for this purpose, and so was the still more discreditable one set on foot by Beaconsfield and Salisbury in 1878. The Crimean war was, in like manner, fought to make Turkey a "buffer." In fact, during the greater part of this century, nearly all the arts of war and peace have been employed to make and keep Russia an enemy of England, and her immense services to civilization in extending her frontier to the east have been constantly held up to odium, as advances towards India for the purpose of invasion and conquest—an idea the preposterousness of which is only now beginning to be faintly recognized.

At the present moment we are witnessing one of the results of half a century of carefully cultivated hatred and distrust. The proposal of the late Emperor Nicholas, in 1852, to treat Turkey as "a sick man," and take charge of his effects by agreement with England—one of the sanest state papers of this century—would, as we now see, have been an incalculable benefit to mankind. It was peremptorily rejected, and treated as a proof of Nicholas's depravity, and an alliance against him was promptly entered into with one of the paltriest of adventurers. A hundred thousand lives were sacrificed in the Crimean war, a thousand million dollars spent in behalf of the monstrous and inhuman despotism called the Porte. In twenty years not a vestige of its results remained, and the Porte had gone steadily down hill in the interval. Once more, in 1878, England armed to save Turkey, and Lord Salisbury brought back from Berlin a bundle of lies and deceptions as to what he and Disraeli had done to secure reform in Turkey. He has confessed within a year that the whole thing was an elaborate delusion; that not only have no reforms been made in Turkey, but that

the Sultan may massacre all Christian subjects for anything Great Britain can do to prevent him.

Is it wonderful that, after this, Russia refuses to join England in disciplining her former protégé? She can well say: "Forty years ago I saw what Turkey was, as well as you now see it. I asked you in a friendly spirit to join me peaceably in removing this terrible stain on our civilization against which Europe had vainly fought for four centuries. You refused me with vituperation, made war on me, destroyed my fleet and arsenals, and removed me from one of my own seas. Twenty years ago the Sultan began massacring again. You discovered the horrors in Bulgaria, but you did nothing to stop them but write newspaper articles. I interfered. I fought the Turk and brought him to his knees, and my bugles were heard in his palace. You again interfered, not to fight him, but to fight me. You brought troops from India, and allowed your Jewish adventurer to fill the air with blatherskite about both me and Turkey. You are now roused by the Sultan's massacres again, and want me to help you to stop them. I shall not do so. I have had enough of your coöperation. You have posed for half a century as the great friend of the Turkish Christians. Now work out the problem yourselves."

If the Czar uses this language when he is in England, no one will venture to say that facts do not justify him. To ask him to help now to make Turkey humane and establish peace within its borders, requires more assurance than any British diplomatist has shown within the present century. We must only hope that personal intercourse with the Queen and with British statesmen and Christians may help to soften his heart and make him forgive the past. If any professor or lecturer wishes to point the moral of Washington's solemn warning against cultivating any international hates, and against allowing our own selfish interests to dominate our foreign policy, he will find nothing better than the history of the relations of England and Russia during the past seventy years.

THE AMHERST ECLIPSE EXPEDITION IN JAPAN.—III.

ESASHI, KITAMI, HOKKAIDO,
August 10, 1896.

THE quiet sound of rhythmic surf from the Sea of Okhotsk, beating upon the sand and rocks of Kitami coast, comes this evening through the little sliding window beside me, where a semicircle of faces is gathered against the dark background of the street. The faces, always indicative of interest and curiosity, but unfailingly amiable and friendly, are quite as much a part of this remote region as the surf itself, and no more intrusive. Ever since the arrival of the expedition, the kindly inhabitants of the town have done everything in their power to facilitate the work of setting up instruments and establishing the station as conveniently as possible.

The "chief officer" immediately placed the school-house—just vacated for a new one—at the disposal of Prof. Todd and his assistants; and one of the leading citizens, who spends half the year here as his summer resort from Hakodate, lent a large piece of land adjoining for the tents and portable house covering the apparatus. Other favors from officials of the region followed rapidly, and when the less scientific members of the *Coronet* party caught the expedition, after a curious and interesting journey along the Yezo coast, it was found to be in fine condition for the eclipse, and with a fair prospect for clear skies on the eventful 9th of August.

From July 10 until August 5 there had been ten perfectly clear afternoons and four only partially shaded. The Hokkaido, in its northern portions, offers a better chance for cloudless skies than the main island, but along its southern coast fogs prevail almost constantly. Reference has been made before to the excellent pamphlet issued by the Central Meteorological Observatory, giving the observations at this season for three years past at all available eclipse locations. From a careful summing up of all results, Esashi, on the northern coast, showed a larger proportion of clear skies than any other, and accordingly Prof. Todd selected it, as did also the French expedition and that sent by the Imperial University at Tokyo; while the Lick Observatory party, under Prof. Schaeberle, and the English expedition, in charge of the Astronomer Royal, Mr. W. H. M. Christie, with his assistants, Prof. Turner and Capt. Hills, R. E., chose Akkesbi, on the southeastern coast, as their location. There were thus five fully equipped expeditions in the Hokkaido, awaiting the moon's shadow to reveal glories and scientific truths perhaps hitherto unknown.

Prof. Terao, in charge of the Tokyo mission, the official party of the Japanese Government, established his camp about half a mile south of the little town and back a short distance from the beach, where the wreck of a small steamer lying in the sand gives a picturesque accent to the scenery. He was well prepared to accomplish excellent photographic work, among his instruments being an especially fine photographic doublet of eight inches aperture, by the well-known optician Brashear of Allegheny. It was constructed for this eclipse, and arrived only a few days before, having been delayed by the difficulty in obtaining the finest quality of glass from Germany needed for the lenses.

The French party, under Prof. Deslandres of the Paris Observatory, was established near the western end of the town, in a large open square of land, where the various tents and houses, the brick piers and large instruments, made almost a little village in themselves. The outfit was very elaborate, and was intended quite exclusively for work in spectroscopy, the specialty of this celebrated astronomical physicist, who has added to the fame of the already famous Paris Observatory by his successful and brilliant work in physical research, in photographing the solar prominences without an eclipse (the same line of work as that pursued by Prof. Hale of Chicago), and by his discovery of the rotation of the corona with the sun at the Senegal eclipse of April 16, 1893. Assisting Prof. Deslandres are the brothers F. and J. Mittau and M. Millochau. The French man-of-war *Alger* brought these gentlemen to Esashi from Yokohama, and very valuable coöperation was given by its officers, Capt. Bouet, commanding, Capt. Le Bouleux de Courlou (who had

charge of the six-inch telescope, and also of observing the four contacts), Capt. Hurbin and Midshipman Dumas in charge of the photometers and thermo-electric instruments. These gentlemen were assisted by a detachment of sailors from the *Alger*, and their presence quite revolutionized life in the quiet little town. Prof. Deslandres's outfit is probably the most elaborate and complete battery of spectroscopic instruments ever brought to bear on an eclipse by any single expedition. Also, appliances were not omitted for pictorial photography of the corona.

The preparation of the Amherst expedition has been already alluded to, with its automatic arrangements whereby electricity is made to do the work of many observers, in exposing and covering plates, removing them from the photographic field, and inserting fresh ones, thus extending almost indefinitely the precious two or three minutes of totality, rich with its tantalizing stores of coronal wealth. Fastened upon one great central axis, made to follow the sun by an ingenious glycerine clock, were the Lyman twelve-inch reflector from the Amherst observatory, the Draper fifteen-inch reflector from Harvard, an Edgecomb eight-and-one-half inch reflector, numerous object glasses by Alvan Clark & Sons, the largest of which are a ten-inch lens lent by Harvard and one of seven and a quarter by Amherst, a six-inch objective made by Schroeder of Hamburg, and a great variety of photographic doublets. In addition were polariscopes arranged and lent by Dr. Wright of the Sloane Laboratory of Yale University, two spectroscopes from Harvard Observatory and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and a wheel photometer for measuring the variation of the intensity in the total light of the corona.

All this apparatus was individually connected with the electric commutator (invented by Prof. Todd and made for this eclipse), a slowly revolving copper cylinder full of pins, each of which represented a certain movement of one particular instrument at a given fraction of a second. The whole thing, most complicated to have invented and thought out in all its practical working, but absolutely simple in manipulation, was set up and adjusted in time, and its working was perfect: at a touch of the electric key, plates came into place, were exposed, covered, and passed out, and new ones brought up for exposure, all with the precision of a machine. Thus was demonstrated the practicability of applying an unlimited amount of apparatus, automatically, to the various and fertile problems of eclipse research. It is possible, with the arrangement now perfected, to take between four and five hundred pictures of the corona in two minutes and a half; and that without having to depend upon the fluctuations in the nervous systems of a crowd of observers, many of whom (it is to be hoped in justice to their sense of the sublime in nature) might frequently be so affected by the spectacular part of an eclipse that their routine work would be injured.

The chances for a clear sky in Esashi at this season were a little more than half, at Akkesbi slightly less, and the heavens were closely interrogated during all the weeks while the expedition prepared for the eclipse. As the day drew near, sunshine and rain alternated in ways to try the soul of any but the most calmly scientific human being. If one retired to rest remembering a just past gorgeous sunset, he would probably be awakened in the morning by a heavy shower on the shingled

roof of the old school-house. That roof, however, is the usual promenade of the multitudinous crows of the region, who rise at unknown hours, and begin the day's exercise vigorously before dawn, so that always showers or crows were at hand to rouse the unwary. If the forenoon was thickly clouded, a radiant afternoon often followed; and sparkling early mornings often merged themselves into a thickening sky by the eclipse-hour, about two o'clock. Thus hope and despair alternately possessed the present onlooker, although the chief astronomer kept calmly at work, showing no sign that nature's moods were undermining his nerves. He had no time to study the state of the western horizon, and the vagaries of the wind, and the prevailing drift of cirrus or cumulus. And so the hours grew fewer before the 9th, and Friday and Saturday, the 7th and 8th, brought heavy rains; but the sunset of Saturday night was a superb rose and gold and salmon glory, and a group of the leading officers and citizens came in to congratulate us upon the fine prospect for the morrow. The fishermen of the town sent their compliments by these gentlemen, and their opinion that the eclipse would show in a clear sky. These interested and simple-hearted friends said they had refrained from calling during the two days' rain, as they so feared it might continue that they could not bear to see us and all the fine instruments, but now they gladly came under the present happy circumstances. One of them reported his visit to a shrine that day, to learn from the oracle the probable state of the coming day, and the reply was, "Be careful." This he interpreted to mean that the morning might be cloudy, and we, thinking observation hopeless, would not get all things ready. Then at the critical moment clear sky would appear, and we should be unprepared. Hence the warning to be on our guard.

Sunday morning saw an early shower, and a later clearing; another shower, and a clear blue western sky; a drifting gray scud from the south, and brief sunshine—altogether an unpromising sort of day, with possibilities of breaks through cloud all the time. The first contact could not be accurately observed, but, shortly after, the clouds became very thin, and with smoked glass the sun showed its bitten side distinctly, but ill defined through cloud. Most of the population of the town seemed to be congregated along the fence around our enclosure, looking with far more interest at us and the instruments than at the sun and the darkening landscape. Just before totality, which occurred about two minutes after three, local time, I went to my appointed station for drawing the corona, at the top of a small lighthouse standing in the grounds of a little temple just above the rocks of the shore—a most picturesque vantage-ground for a spectacle beyond anything that it has ever been my fortune to witness. The sea grew leaden in color, the sky desolately sombre. The crows pretended indifference, but soon succumbed and flew off to the thick pine forests on the mountain sides with heavy haste. The *Alger* grew dimmer and grayer, the sampans and junks became almost one mass of equal colorlessness, and the grass and verdure suddenly grew strangely, vividly yellow-green. It was a moment of appalling suspense: something was being waited for—the air was portentous. Then, with a leap, as it seemed, deep darkness came over the world, and with an indescribable outflashing at the same second the corona burst forth in a heavenly radiance. But dimly seen through thin

cloud, it was nevertheless beautiful beyond description, a celestial flame from an unimaginable heaven. Simultaneously the whole northwestern sky far up toward the zenith was instantly flooded with a lurid and startlingly brilliant orange, the clouds drifting across it slightly darker in shade, while the west and southwest gleamed in shining lemon yellow. It was not like a sunset; it was too sombre, too terrible. The sea was dark, the horizon indistinguishable.

One human being seemed so small, so helpless, so slight a part of all the mystery and weirdness! It was as if the hand of Deity were visibly laid upon space and worlds, and had allowed a momentary glimpse into the awfulness of creation. It might have been hours—time seemed annihilated—and yet when the tiniest possible globule of sunlight, like a drop or a pinhole, appeared, that fair corona and all the color in sky and cloud withdrew, the stormy twilight aspect of entire naturalness returned, and then the two minutes and a half in memory seemed but a few seconds.

All fine detail of the corona was necessarily lost in the thick sky. A few photographs were taken of a corona which must have been unusually brilliant to show so distinctly even through cloud, and it was noticeably flattened at the poles of the sun and extended at its equator, thus indicating to the scientific observer new and extended lines of research for the eclipse of the future. Just after totality a message came from Akkeshi: "Heavy fog. Nothing done." Nature knows how to be cruel—or is it simply indifference? But until man learns to circumvent clouds in his search after the unknown, I shall still feel that she keeps the advantage.

The sound of the surf has grown louder, the street noises less; the circle of faces has disappeared, and the man going about the town beating two sticks to announce his faithfulness on watch has just passed by. The eclipse is over; but the Ainu we still have with us—that mysterious nation retreating more and more into the remote interior, and constantly decreasing in numbers. The world is very interesting; and the heavens remain.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

THE ROMANS IN AFRICA.

PARIS, September 9, 1896.

M. GASTON BOISSIER, who has for a twelve-month past held the important office of Perpetual Secretary of the French Academy, is considered our best Latinist. He has for many years devoted himself to the study of the Latin literature, and among his most important writings I will cite a volume on 'Cicero and his Friends,' two volumes on 'The Roman Religion from Augustus to the Antonines,' two volumes on 'The End of Paganism,' and a volume on 'The Opposition under the Cæsars.' M. Gaston Boissier never forgets his familiar subject, even when travelling; and he is to me particularly interesting when he travels and takes such notes as are found in his 'Archæological Rambles.' Rome and Pompeii have furnished him a most interesting field; he has followed the footsteps of Horace and Virgil in his 'New Archæological Rambles,' and recently he has gone as far afield as Algeria and Tunis, publishing on his return a volume, full of interest, on 'Roman Africa.' It is, I repeat, refreshing for me to travel with M. Gaston Boissier; I learn something from his works, while the sensational volumes

of travel which are written now in such abundance are merely descriptions, in which the author generally contents himself with inundating his substantives with adjectives, as a landscape painter might dash color upon color. It is impossible for the writer to compete with the painter, or even with the photographer; this seems, however, the sole object of most of our modern writers.

M. Boissier's method is quite different. He does not pretend to give us sensations, he gives us ideas; he improves our knowledge while improving his own, and adds to the treasures of his memory what can be gained by direct contact with facts, even with ruins. It has seemed to him that, in order to judge aright of the possibilities of the future of our French Africa, it would not be unimportant to know accurately what the past of Roman Africa has to teach us.

"We are not," says he, "the first who came from the realms of the north to establish themselves; we have had, in this land, illustrious predecessors who conquered it, as we have done, and who governed it with glory for several centuries. They met nearly the same difficulties which we have met; they overcame the same resistance of nature, the same opposition of warlike races which occupied the ground and did not wish to share it with anybody."

When the Romans established themselves in Africa, they had chiefly to deal with their old enemies, the Carthaginians, just as the French, in the first period of their conquest, saw only Arabs everywhere. But in reality the Carthaginians were but a small part of the population of Africa; they lived in the great cities, in the seaports. Sallust is the first writer who mentions other peoples who had nothing in common with the Punic race. Cæsar had given to him the province of Numidia; his ethnography of Africa is probably derived from some Greek fables—it has no scientific value. We will note only how much he was struck with the diversity of races in his province. Nothing so much impressed M. Gaston Boissier as this same diversity, particularly one day in the great market of Souk-Ahras.

"In the great square of this little town, the natives were coming from all sides, some on foot, others on horseback, on donkeys, or on camels. It was a pleasure to see them looking for each other in this crowd, recognizing each other, shaking hands with each other, embracing each other with shrieks of joy. There were people of all sizes, all forms, all colors. From the jet black of the negroes of the Sudan to the dull white of the Arabs living in the great tents, you could see every shade which the human skin can show. What astonished me more than anything while I was looking at this crowd was to find under the *chechia* so many faces which I thought I recognized. I noticed at every step short men, with blue eyes, with fair or red hair, a broad face, a smiling mouth, which recalled to me the peasants of our villages. 'Take a *djemâa* of Kabyles,' says M. de la Blanchère in his 'Student's Journey in a Part of the Cæsarian Mauritania,' 'take off the burnous, put on all these men our blouses or coats, and you will have a municipal council composed of French peasants.'"

We thought for a long time after the conquest that the inhabitants all spoke the Arabic language, and it is the only language which our officers or functionaries still use in their dealings with them; but we found out that there is another, which the inhabitants use in their familiar dealings. It is not, as was at first supposed, a mixture of the local idioms of various provinces or races; it is a true language, with its proper rules. This language is used in Kabylia, and also in the

villages of the Aurès, among the wild Touaregs and the tribes of Morocco. It is the universal speech throughout the Sahara, on the banks of the Niger, and as far as the Senegal. This very ancient people, having its peculiar language, known to the Romans under the name of Numidians, to the Arabs under the name of Berbers, divided into an immense number of jealous and often inimical tribes, is now what it was in the time of Jugurtha. The form of government is of the simplest kind. The *djemâa* of the Kabyles is the most elementary organization; it needs no tribunals, no police, no magistrates. The villages have an independent existence; few chieftains have been able to form powerful aggregations, and these have never had a long existence.

Towards the end of the war with Hannibal there were, however, two Berber kingdoms—the kingdom of Syphax, who had for his capital Cirta (now Constantine), and the kingdom of Gala. These two kings were rivals. Masinissa was the son of Gala, and Corneille's drama "Sophonisbe" has given a sort of immortality to the struggles of these two houses. Cirta changed its name under Constantine. Its situation is very striking: "There is the high, inaccessible mountain, which these little kings could choose in order to put their treasures and their lives in safety." The French troops, under the best of leaders, had to make great efforts in order to take Constantine; its assault was made the subject of one of those vivid pictures by Horace Vernet which are to be seen in the château of Versailles. The palace of Syphax was probably at the highest part of the city, called the Kasba; and there probably took place, when Masinissa gained possession of it, the scene which remained famous in antiquity (it is found on one of the few frescoes at Pompeii), and which has twice been put on the stage. At the gate of the palace of his enemy the Berber king found Sophonisba, daughter of Asdrubal, who had determined Syphax to side with Carthage against the Romans. She fell on her knees and begged Masinissa not to let her fall alive into the hands of the Romans. She was young and handsome, says Livy; at sight of her Masinissa felt something more than pity, and, in order to save her, he married her the same day, thinking that the Romans would not dare to lay their hands on his wife. He little knew them. Scipio ordered Masinissa to give up Sophonisba. Not daring to disobey, and unwilling to put her in the hands of the Romans, Masinissa sent her some poison, and the brave Numidian drank it. Masinissa was rewarded with the title of king; he was treated with the same honors as a consul; he was allowed to take all the territory he could seize from the Carthaginians. Boissier tells us that he freely used this permission, and for fifty years continued his incursions into the land of Carthage. "At the age of eighty-eight he still rode without a saddle, and made war, during the fine season, under the very walls of Carthage. The rest of the time he lived in his *sraglio* at Cirta, in the midst of a large family which trembled before him. He died at ninety, having never been ill."

The long reign of Masinissa was a period of great prosperity for Numidia; after him, the Romans were obliged to meddle more and more in the affairs of Africa. The history of their long war against Jugurtha has been told by Sallust. This great writer was more occupied with Rome than with Africa; he had his eyes fixed on the Forum and the Senate. He does not indulge in picturesque descriptions;

but his descriptions are absolutely exact. The army of Jugurtha reminds us of the army of Abd el Kader; he too had his regulars, and his contingents or *goums*, furnished by many tribes and vanishing after a defeat. The Roman army had to proceed very much as did the French army in our time.

Carthage was the work of the Phœnicians, who were foreigners of the Semitic race; like the Jews, addicted to commerce more than to agriculture. In what he says of the Phœnicians M. Boissier follows the writers who in our day have made us acquainted with the wonderful city, the Venice of the old world, which kept for some time the fortunes of Rome in the balance. He has traced in Tunis the remains of the city, which was twice completely destroyed. In the modern Tunis you find at every step fragments of marble which must have belonged to the ancient queen of the Mediterranean Sea. A map shows us what has been found of the ruins of old Carthage. King Louis Philippe had a little chapel built, by permission of the Bey of Tunis, in memory of St. Louis, on the rocky elevation called Byrsa, and it fortunately happens that the present almoner of the chapel, the Abbé Delattre, is an ardent archæologist, and is making new discoveries every day. M. Gaston Boissier goes somewhat out of his way to enter into a long analysis of the second book of the *Æneid*, and in trying to discover Virgil's reasons for making his Dido and Æneas what they are in his immortal poem, I prefer what he has to say when he is on the solid ground of history, and tells us, for instance, how Carthage was taken by the younger Scipio.

M. Boissier touches almost on a modern subject in exhibiting the timid policy of Rome in Africa after the downfall of Carthage, the system of a restricted occupation and a mere protectorate giving way by degrees to the system of direct government and administration. The Romans at first thought it best to establish in their dependencies some king or chief belonging to an ancient race and to govern under his authority. They found out after a while that these dependent monarchies are useless when they are weak, and, if they become strong, they are tempted to make themselves independent. After a while they divided their African possessions into two parts, *Africa vetus*, which became an imperial province, and *Africa nova*, which received not legates, but mere intendants, who had only the command of auxiliary troops levied among the barbarous tribes.

The abundance of ruins in Africa proves what degree of prosperity the conquered provinces had attained. M. Boissier does not attempt to describe all the Roman cities which are known by their ruins. *Ab uno disce omnes*; he chooses Timgad, not on account of its importance, for it does not seem to have played any great part, but in order to show how the Romans took, so to speak, Rome everywhere, just as the English take all over the world their habits and their sports. Each town had its arch of triumph, its forum, its statues, its basilica, its altars, its curia, its tribune. M. Boissier carefully describes the architectural remains of Timgad, following a magnificent publication based upon the researches of a distinguished architect, M. Duttoit. Each Roman town had also its water-works, its aqueducts, its theatre. M. Boissier describes further the great villas which were built in the country by the Romans; he has very interesting details on the villa of Pompeianus, its stables and baths. His volume

will be found very instructive on the subject of the long occupation of Africa by Rome, as well as on the history of African Latin literature, which ends his excellent volume and deals chiefly with the works of Apuleius and Petronius.

Correspondence.

MR. BRYAN AT ASHEVILLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: This charming little place is situated in the County of Buncombe and formerly used to be called Buncombe Town. The historical phrase of "talking for Buncombe" originated with a former member of Congress from this district, who, when advocating in a long, tedious speech for the benefit of his constituents some measure that had no chance of passing, and upon being urged by his colleagues to stop, answered: "Hush! I am not talking for this bill; I am talking for Buncombe."

However, whether this tradition be true or not, I found, upon my arrival here, a few days ago, posters all over town, and on roadways leading to it, that Mr. Bryan would address this constituency on the 16th, at 3 P. M.; and I found the excitement among the townspeople running pretty high in expectancy of this great event. The early morning hours yesterday already showed that the sturdy farmers and tar-gatherers of the surrounding country had caught the excitement. A forenoon walk showed all the shady places in the woods, in and surrounding the city, filled with farmers' teams, the mules and horses tethered to the wagons and given over to an unquestionably welcome lazy day of munching fodder and corn. Thus, both man and beast had, thanks to Mr. Bryan, a day of lark and festive enjoyment, not to forget the shopkeepers, who reaped a rich harvest. Yes, a lark it seemed to be. The Court House square and the few leading streets of the town were filled with a surging mass of country people of the plainest sort, well-behaved, good natured, good-spirited, kind, and sober. This is a silver town, though, as I understand, not a Tillman town, and Bryan buttons, Bryan flags, hacks and teams carrying the stars and stripes with Bryan devices, and bicyclers with their wheels encircled with the national colors, abounded.

Mr. Bryan arrived, according to programme, at two P. M., was escorted by the committee to the beautiful Battery Park Hotel, and, after dining and resting for a while, was taken to the stand prepared for him, in a carriage drawn by four white horses, preceded and followed by an extempore bodyguard of about a hundred citizens on horseback, caparisoned with bunting. Their advance guard made Mr. Bryan, and their followers made his followers, swallow the dust; Mr. Bryan's white cravat showing the worse for it when he ascended the stand.

The view of the crowd was picturesque in the extreme. The stand had been erected facing a green slope, on which the audience were seated on the grass in a wide hemicycle, giving to the whole an amphitheatric appearance, to which the gay colors worn by the listeners (over half of whom were of the non-voting sex, of all classes and conditions), the shifting lights and the green background, lent additional charm. Back of and at each side of the stand were several hundred vehicles, from the smart turn-out of the summer visitor down to the one-mule team of the cabin dinky. Mr.

Bryan managed to address them from all sides of the compass, though mainly facing the amphitheatre, as, when making a telling point, he wheeled completely around between commencement and ending of the sentence—a forensic trick which I have seen only Thomas H. Benton make in my young days.

I had never seen Bryan, and was much disappointed at his appearance and cast of features, so far as one reads character and intellect in them. He was dressed in conventional black with a white neck-tie, both considerably bedusted, and looked to me the typical Western country lawyer or preacher, such as I have seen in hundreds, with the heavy jaw, broad chin, and strong mouth. His forehead is good, but does not bespeak great intellectual qualities; his hair is bushy, black; his ears large. He looked not young, certainly older than his age; his complexion was sallow and his eyes dull. His voice, though carrying far, was husky and grating, and gave evident signs that his larynx was revolting against the abuse to which he was subjecting it. As he ascended the stand a countryman standing next to me said: "Why, he looks like a hard-shell Baptist minister."

Of his address little can be said. It seemed to me that I had read it all, *ad nauseam*, in the reports of his other railway-platform harangues. Only, the demagogue came to the surface stronger when heard speaking by mouth than when read in print. He confined his remarks exclusively to silver—not a word about anything else. This being a farming and not an industrial community, he left out the usual tirades against the rich and in behalf of the downtrodden who were forced, against their will, to accept good, sound gold for their labor and product. He denounced Mr. Carlisle in unmeasured and, in my judgment, improper and ungentelemanly terms. He pronounced this government to be one "of the syndicate, by the syndicate, and for the syndicate." He said that many poems had been written about silver and about gold, but that only one poem could be written about the Government syndicate, and that would be one in which the only possible rhyme to syndicate that he could think of was "hate." Such stuff he rolled off by the yard.

His delivery is good. He never falters for a word. His gestures are peculiar, and more adapted to the pulpit than to the forum. He throws out both arms parallel to each other, at right angles to the body, or above his head, rarely moving one hand singly, and, when coming to a climax, lifts himself up on his toes, and comes down with a thump at the last word of the sentence. His features do not speak, his eye is lustreless, but his delivery gives the impression of concentrated and sinister power. The genial smile of which newspapers speak was not to be seen; perhaps he was, as he looked, tired and worn out. Grace, ease, and dignity were wanting *in modo*, truthfulness, patriotism, erudition, and candor *in re*.

I cannot close this letter without again expressing satisfaction at the good behavior, the good nature, and, according to its lights, the intelligence of the audience, most of them farmers and rough tillers of the soil. There was great yelling and hurrahing as Mr. Bryan's points came out, most of it upon a signal from one of the three chairmen who occupied the stand with Mr. Bryan, and who applauded almost continuously; but the side remarks and loud interpellations were many and not bad. There was no drunkenness or impropriety of any sort. It is pleasant to feel that

these sturdy and honest people, open as they are to error to-day, will be just as open to truth when it assuredly will, sooner or later, dawn upon them.

W. T.

ASHEVILLE, N. C.

GREENBACKS AND DEPRECIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called to a statement in a little pamphlet entitled 'Points for Thinkers,' published by the Nonconformist Publishing Co., Indianapolis, as follows:

"The first greenbacks issued in 1862, to the amount of \$60,000,000, never did depreciate a cent. They were always on a par with gold, and were receivable for interest on the public debt and duties on imports."

Will you kindly inform me through your paper, if space permits, giving facts concerning the issue referred to, and oblige

C. A. R.

TOLEDO, September 10.

[The statement quoted contains one half-truth and one whole falsehood. The "old demand notes," as the greenbacks referred to were habitually called, could not of course depreciate, as compared with other legal-tender notes, so long as the old notes were receivable for interest and public dues while the new notes were not. As compared with gold, however, they did depreciate. On February 29, 1862, gold sold at 102 $\frac{1}{4}$; the old demand notes at 100 $\frac{1}{2}$. On May 12, the price of gold was 103 $\frac{1}{2}$; of the demand notes, 100 $\frac{1}{2}$. Later in 1862, the difference in premium between gold and the demand notes ranged from 4 to 7 per cent. In other words, they did from the first depreciate as compared with gold, and they were never at par with gold.—ED. NATION.]

CONSERVATISM IN VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Upon a recent visit to a part of Virginia where I have spent my holidays, whenever possible, for half a century, I came upon a state of affairs well calculated to provoke belief in the announcement of the colored Richmond clergyman a few years ago that "the sun do move." Walking in the garden with my host, I was struck by the distinct enunciation of my name from the lips of a coal black negro boy who "bade me the time of day" as we passed where he was pulling up weeds. Suggesting that his improved power of pronunciation was due to attendance at the public school, I was told that it was, and, further, that the principal of the colored public school was a well-educated young negro man of excellent character, who was also superintendent of the colored Episcopal Sunday-school in the neighborhood. The location and condition of this Sunday-school were my discovery, and I will try to describe both.

At the edge of the village stands an Episcopal church, built some seventy years ago, upon nearly every one of whose stained glass windows are engraved names well known in the annals of colonial Virginia. Half a mile away, and separated by what was once a park filled with noble oaks and a broad expanse of green lawn, stands "The Hall," its solid walls and fluted columns showing white and still and strong under the

burning August sun, as they have done for more than a century, without a symptom of decay, the fit emblem and abode of conservatism. Its builder a hundred years ago owned some ten square miles of land around it, much the larger part of which still belongs to his descendants, who constitute the greater part of the present congregation of the church, and to whom it came by inheritance and not by purchase.

The lands being fertile to a degree, and the race of people a sturdy one, natural subdivision, even assisted by destructive war, has failed to substitute for the old, refined society of gentle people a class nearer akin to the soil they cultivate. Under changed conditions, of course, and with many a ravelled edge to its garment and some wounds dangerously near its vital, "the neighborhood" stands up against time and change.

In a corner of the churchyard there has stood, for some forty years, a plain wooden chapel, wherein, before the war, a white Episcopal minister, whose salary was paid by the neighboring gentry, most of whom were relations of his wife if not of himself, taught and preached to the negroes of the neighboring plantations. When a boy, as a visitor at "The Hall," I have often seen the muster of the little negroes on their way to Sunday-school, and partaken of the ginger cakes provided for their reward. The negro Sunday-school of to-day is held in that chapel, and the hymn is given out and the prayer led by the colored teacher of the public school, but the singing is led by young ladies of the congregation bearing those historic names, one of whom humbly kneels at the head of each class while the superintendent prays.

The colored sexton of the parish church, whose snow-white head tells of a connection with "old times," does not submit to change so easily. He inveighs with frequency and bitterness against "shacks," as he designates the well-to-do part of the population unable to "read their title clear" to descent from some colonial magnate, showing a feeling excusable to those who observe how persistently of late the sun has shone on the "shack" side of the hedge. To one of these, a young clergyman born in the county but outside of "the neighborhood," who, having been invited by the rector to fill his pulpit, appeared at the robing room door, surplice-case in hand, he vouchsafed the following rather chilly greeting: "Hi! you gwine to preach here? Don't you know dis congregation is quality?"

Truly, whether the sun stands still as in the days of Joshua, or goes backward as in the days of Hezekiah, or "do move" (presumably forward) in our progressive day, it never fails to illuminate with certain light the place where, under the legend "Noblesse oblige," people rise to the occasion whatever it may be.

P. L. BURWELL.

THE SCHOOLS AND POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While commenting on the present political aspect, and after referring to the dangers to our institutions which have been exposed by the money controversy during the last six months, a correspondent of the *Nation* finds a cause for existing conditions in the defects of our school system, or in the fact that the educational institutions of the country fail to furnish proper instruction in the principles of financial integrity and political honesty. He says: "Our system of general, if

not universal, education, which has been held as the sufficient safeguard in a free country against the possibility of such conditions, seems not to have justified the hopes of its advocates."

While it is true that our present system of public instruction ignores the fundamental principles upon which a genuine republic rests, and while it is a debatable question whether the sum total of human happiness and prosperity is greatly augmented under the present educational régime, still I think it can scarcely be said that the "utter disregard" which is manifested "for every sound principle in the management of national, State, and municipal finances, and the flagrant and criminally reckless methods of corporate and individual business," are due to the fact that schoolboys receive no sound training in the principles of economics. It would seem that a truer statement of the case would be this, that the causes which underlie the at present dishonest and unwholesome commercial and political transactions are identical with those which are responsible for the apathy respecting the correct training of the youth; or, in other words, that commercial dishonesty and faulty and superficial educational methods are branches from the same root—a root which extends to the very foundation of our so-called republican institutions.

If it is a fact that our present educational system ignores the principles of financial integrity and commercial honesty; if the school-boys of to-day are "taught nothing of the certain difficulty and probable danger of incurring debt, nothing of the sacredness of money obligations"—we should bear in mind that no ethical standard is demanded by those who support this system. We should remember that a great majority of those who give life and educational advantages to these boys, and who furnish them with examples for their guidance, have themselves no appreciation of the principles which should characterize the conduct of those who aspire to the benefits derived from a republican form of government.

Already in this country liberty has degenerated into license. Among the masses of the people the one object in life seems to be selfish gratification in one form or another; and the mad rush for money goes on with no thought for the methods employed in getting it. The effect of all this upon the youth is exactly what might be expected: Perhaps in no civilized land does one behold "precocious vice" and a determination among youths to procure self-gratification carried to such an alarming extent as in America. The lack of shame evinced by the young men and boys of this age as they indulge in vulgar and distasteful habits upon the streets and in other public places, shows plainly that, according to their own ideas, they are simply enjoying the "inalienable rights of American citizens." The fact that such encroachments upon the rights of others are in any way reprehensible has doubtless never occurred to them. Self-control and a proper regard for the rights of other people—the two fundamental principles necessary to the establishment of a genuine republic—are everywhere ignored, both by the young and the old.

ELIZA BURT GAMBLE.

DETROIT, MICH., September 17, 1896.

WHO HITCHED THE CART?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent who attempts un-

der this heading, in the *Nation* of September 10, to clear the President of the Johns Hopkins University from the charge of obscurantism on *a-priori* grounds—never more dangerously employed than here—does grave injustice to the Trustees of the University; for, as every one familiar with the one-man organization of the Johns Hopkins knows, the Faculty is not admitted to the University stable-yard, and all harnessing, whether it be hitching the University wagon to a star, as in its early history, or the strange, crab-like progression of these latter days as concerns the most important educational movement of modern times, must be credited to the Trustees or to the President. Nor can the conservative environment be to blame, as your correspondent suggests, for both the location of the buildings of the University and the existence of the University itself as a great graduate school are a slap in the face of local prejudice.

It is an open secret, well known to the many women who have tried in vain to obtain admission to the University, and to the members of the Faculty who have interested themselves to obtain this admission for special women, that all such petitions have been for years pigeon-holed in the offices of administration. It is perhaps not so well known that the liberal and broad-minded original Trustees appointed by Johns Hopkins were, by a considerable majority, in favor of the admission of well-qualified women, as was proved by successive votes on the subject in the Board, and that the resignation of one of these original Trustees of less liberal views, still living, settled the question affirmatively as far as the Board was concerned. It was then that this Turkish policy of pigeon-holing began. It is also a matter of history that the President of the University was abroad when this same liberal majority accepted the \$109,000 raised for the Medical School by the women's committees, and solemnly pledged themselves, as soon as the endowment of \$500,000 should be completed, to open the medical school of the University to women on the same terms as to men; and that it was only after the President's return that a strong reactionist party was stirred up in the Board, who urged the Trustees to forswear their unanimous vote of two years before, and refuse Miss Garrett's offer of \$306,977 to complete the endowment and enable the school to open immediately. Those who have come in contact with the medieval lack of sympathy with women's desire for advanced study that streaks the (in many respects) luminous intelligence that guides the University, had little difficulty in explaining this change of heart in what fortunately proved to be a minority of the Board. I am furthermore informed by an eye-witness that, after Miss Garrett's gift was finally accepted, the Board was detained while an effort was made by a committee, owing its inspiration to the same source, to induce Miss Garrett to substitute the word "equal" for "the same" in the sentence, "open to women on the same terms as men," which conditioned her gift to the medical school. The above matters belong to ante-bellum days, and are recalled here only in justice to the Trustees of the Johns Hopkins University.—Yours very truly,

ONE WHO KNOWS.

BALTIMORE, September 11, 1896.

IMMERMANN'S "MERLIN."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to forestall the

condemnation which is waiting for me at the hand of some future critic by making public confession of a bad slip committed in my recently published "Social Forces in German Literature"? In a brief notice of Immermann's "Merlin" (p. 511) I speak of the hero of this drama as "that mysterious son of Satan and the Holy Virgin who," etc. Lest this sentence arouse what would be a very natural suspicion, that I had here confounded the *Candida* of the Merlin tragedy with the Virgin Mary, I wish to say that my mistake consisted in not rendering the German expression "heilige Jungfrau," which was in my mind, by "saintly virgin" instead of "holy virgin"—a mistake which was subsequently aggravated by the printer's capitalizing both words.

Let me add that Immermann's "Merlin" deserves a much fuller consideration than that which I could give it in my book. The scene where Satan obtains power over *Candida* is a piece of wonderful poetry, combining the fantastic fervor of Calderon's "Mágico Prodigioso" with the profound thought of Goethe's "Prolog im Himmel."—Respectfully,

KUNO FRANCKE.

CAMBRIDGE, September 17, 1896.

A SCOTT LEGEND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I notice in Miss Mary Anderson's "Few Memories" the following passage on p. 131:

"At Kenilworth we stayed at the humble little cottage which had sheltered Walter Scott, who is said to have gone there to write his great novel under the shadow of the noble ruin. A villager told us how, as a child, he had seen Sir Walter standing on the knoll near Amy Robsart's window, and how his figure, wrapped in a long cloak, seemed to tower in the moonlight."

'Kenilworth' was published in November, 1820, and, the 'Abbot' having appeared in the preceding September, Scott must have worked at full speed to accomplish the Elizabethan novel; yet he was at this time much occupied with other business, both public and private. Lockhart makes no mention of any trip to England—Kenilworth is full three hundred miles from Edinburgh—in this interval, though he does record one immediately afterwards, in January, 1821. Of course, at this time, the authorship of the Waverley novels was still a secret, and though Scott was generally respected, his person would hardly be familiar to a "villager" of Warwickshire. It would seem, therefore, that, in sixty years, a "Scott legend" had grown up in the village which owed immortality to his novel, and that Miss Anderson, who undoubtedly put down just what she heard, was the victim of a fable.

It may be remarked in passing that her book suffers grievously from a want of revision in the spelling of proper names. "Merri-vale," "Winklemann," etc., have an ungraceful look. W. E.

SEPTEMBER 14, 1896.

Notes.

EDWARD ARNOLD'S fall announcements embrace 'Through Unknown African Countries,' by A. Donaldson Smith, M.D.; 'In and Beyond the Himalayas,' by S. J. Stone; 'Fifty Years' Reminiscences of India,' by Lieut. Col. W. Pollock; 'The Religions of India,' by

Edward Washburn Hopkins, Ph.D.; 'Early Chartered Companies,' by George Cawston and A. H. Keane; 'Early English Furniture: An Account of the Famous English Cabinet-makers,' by Mrs. Warren Clouston; 'Old English Glasses,' i. e., drinking-vessels, by Albert Hartshorne; 'A Treasury of Minor British Poetry,' selected and arranged by J. Churton Collins; 'Plant-lore and Garden-craft in Shakspeare,' by Henry N. Ellacombe; 'Wagner's Heroines,' by Constance Maud; 'The Adventures of My Life,' by Henri Rochefort; 'The Chances of Death, and Other Studies in Evolution,' by Karl Pearson; 'Habit and Instinct: A Study in Heredity,' by C. Lloyd Morgan; and 'Fancy Dresses Described,' by Arden Holt.

Additional announcements by D. Appleton & Co. are 'Pioneers of Science in America,' edited by Dr. W. J. Youmans; 'The Story of the Mine,' by Charles Howard Shinn; 'The Story of Electricity,' by John Muir; 'The Story of Architecture,' by Charles T. Matthews; 'The Evolution of the Art of Music,' by C. Hubert H. Parry; 'The Music of the Modern World,' by Anton Seidl, assisted by Fanny Morris Smith; 'Oriental Ceramic Art,' the Walters Collection, with text by Dr. S. W. Bushell; 'A Reference Book of Practical Therapeutics,' by Dr. Frank P. Foster; 'The Beginning of a Nation,' by Dr. Edward Eggleston; 'General Sherman,' by Gen. Manning F. Force; 'The Rise and Growth of the English Nation,' in three volumes, by W. H. S. Aubrey; 'When William IV. Was King,' by John Ashton; 'Memoirs of Marshal Oudinot,' including the unpublished papers of his wife; 'The Forgotten Isles,' the Balearic, namely, by M. Vuillier; 'The Intellectual and Moral Development of the Child,' by Gabriel Compayré; 'Our Juvenile Offenders,' by W. Douglas Morrison; 'The Seven Seas,' verse by Rudyard Kipling; 'Rodney Stone,' by A. Conan Doyle, illustrated; 'The Statement of Stella Maberly,' by F. Anstey; 'The Little Regiment,' by Stephen Crane; 'A Galahad of the Creeks,' by S. Levett Yeats; 'The Complete Bachelor Manners for Men'; 'Driving for Pleasure,' by Francis T. Underhill; and 'Appletons' Natural History.'

G. P. Putnam's Sons promise 'The Nicaragua Canal and the Monroe Doctrine,' a political history, by Prof. Lindley M. Keasbey of Bryn Mawr; 'The Historical Development of Modern Europe,' by Prof. Charles M. Andrews of the same institution; 'The Country of Horace and Virgil,' from the French of Gaston Boissier by D. Havelock Fisher; 'Ancient Idols: A Study of Intellectual and Spiritual Growth,' by Henry Osborn Taylor; 'The Literary Movement in France during the Nineteenth Century,' from the French of Georges Pellissier by Anne G. Brinton; 'Essays in French History,' by J. E. Farmer; 'Studies in Interpretation: Clough—Keats—Matthew Arnold,' by Prof. Wm. Henry Judson of Leland Stanford Junior University; 'Little Journeys to the Homes of American Authors'; 'The Five Great Septical Dramas,' by the Rev. John Owen; 'Hopkins' Pond, and Other Sketches,' by Robert T. Morris, M.D.; 'Parakites: A Treatise on the Making and Flying of Tailless Kites,' by Gilbert T. Woglom; 'Lawns and Gardens,' by N. Jönsson Rose; 'The History of Economics,' by Henry Dunning Macleod; 'Songs without Answer,' by Irene Putnam; and 'In My Lady's Name: Poems of Love and Beauty,' compiled by Charles W. Moulton.

From J. B. Lippincott Co.'s list we select 'The True George Washington,' by Paul Lei-

chester Ford; 'Myths and Legends of Our Own Land,' by Charles M. Skinner; 'Songs of the South,' a collection by Jennie Thornley Clarke; 'Half-Hours of Travel at Home and Abroad,' by Charles Morris; 'Paris Days and Evenings,' by Stuart Henry; 'A Comic History of England,' a posthumous work of Bill Nye's; and 'Famous Violinists and Violins,' by Dr. T. L. Phipson.

It has been for some time an open secret that a "Library of the World's Best Literature" was in preparation, under the chief editorial control of Charles Dudley Warner, to be completed in thirty volumes, and sold either upon advance orders or by subscription. Its scheme resembles Humphry Ward's "English Poets" in combining with representative selections "critical essays" on the respective authors "by distinguished writers of the present day," together with biographical sketches. The publication has its headquarters at No. 91 Fifth Avenue, New York.

J. Selwin Tait & Sons have in the press 'Leo XIII. and Modern Civilization,' by J. Bleeker Miller.

Lemcke & Buechner have nearly ready the 'Tell el-Amarna Letters,' from the originals, by Hugo Winckler, being a complete transcription of these tablets, dating from 1500 B.C., with English translation, notes, index, and glossary.

'Totem Tales,' told and pictorially illustrated by W. A. Phillips, is in the press of the Star Publishing Co., Chicago.

Col. Fred C. Pierce, No. 160 Washington Street, Chicago, is at work upon a Genealogy of the Bacheller Family, and desires to communicate with persons of this name, however spelt.

Some time during the month of October there will occur at the University of Leipzig a very interesting celebration, in honor of the completion of twenty-five years of academic work by Professor Eduard Sievers. In memory of this event some friends and former pupils of his have united in publishing a memorial volume, the editors of which are Prof. Kaufmann of Kiel and Prof. John Meier of Halle. Twenty-three prominent philologists and literary historians have contributed articles. Among the foremost are Prof. O. Schrader of Jena, F. Holthausen of Gothenburg, and A. Litzmann, director of the Goethe and Schiller Archives in Weimar. The other contributors are scattered over Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Holland, Sweden, and America. Those from America are Prof. A. S. Cook of Yale, Prof. G. Hempl of Michigan University, E. E. Hale of Schenectady, and Prof. G. E. Karsten of the University of Indiana. The contributions cover a wide range of subjects in Germanic philology and literature. The book will contain about 800 octavo pages, and will cost \$10. The publisher, Max Niemeyer of Halle, agrees to furnish the book free of transportation charges to all Americans who order it before the 1st of October.

An opportunity presents itself to purchase *en bloc* seventeen volumes containing the autograph of Martin Luther in several highly interesting forms, especially four church songs, including "Ein feste Burg" and "Vater unser im Himmelreich"—the latter transcribed in 1530, nine years before its first appearance in print. The collection was begun in 1632 and has been nursed to this day, when Luther autographs are so scarce and command so high a price. Particulars may be had of Jacques Rosenthal, No. 10 Karlstrasse, Munich, or through Lemcke & Buechner, 813 Broadway, New York.

Close upon the heels of the 'Bibliographie Française' comes the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1896' (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*). There is no editorial foreword, and we can say no more than that this volume bulks about an inch less in thickness than last year's, and so puts off the inevitable day when the publishers' catalogues must be bound up in two or more volumes. The French and English examples of indexes cannot, we fear, soon be imitated.

The five original volumes of the 'Memoirs of Baron Thiébauld,' which appeared in a straggling manner in 1893-95, and which revived the name of one of the less famous of Napoleon's commanders, have now been translated and judiciously condensed by Arthur John Butler in two compact and handsome volumes (Macmillan). Mr. Butler was also the translator of Marbot, and has therefore been all the better prepared to make an idiomatic and faithful version of this kindred work, which ranks among the most entertaining and impressive of the many produced in the recent Napoleonic revival. There is a fair index, but not analytical. What is one to do with 84 bare figure references under Napoleon?

Those interested in things German will read with pleasure and profit a little book entitled 'Betrachtungen eines in Deutschland reisenden Deutschen,' by P. D. Fischer (Berlin: Julius Springer). The author, who holds one of the higher positions in the imperial postal service, has had for many years exceptional opportunities for a thorough acquaintance with all parts of the empire, and, being a man of experience, culture, and good powers of observation, he has derived from his official journeys and investigations an unusual amount of information concerning the country and the people of to-day. A long-continued study of industrial and commercial questions has not deadened in his versatile mind the historical and poetic sense. He discusses the various modes of travel, not forgetting the "wheel," though unable to decide whether the bicyclist should be counted among "Reiter, Fahrer, or Fussgänger," since he is all three in one. He writes of the mountain-districts and the open country; of rivers, seas, and seaports; of forests, fields, cities; of noblemen's estates and peasants' and laborers' homes—always from the double point of view of general humanity and of modern civilization. Most of the material of the book had been published before in two articles in the *Rundschau* for January and May, 1894, but we find that the tasty little volume contains much additional matter and a few entirely new chapters. The style is faultless, almost classical, and the book deserves to be provided with some historical and geographical notes and a good map, for the use of American students.

The 'Bilder zur Mythologie und Geschichte der Griechen und Römer' (Berlin: Carl Graessner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) has proceeded from the first number, of which we gave an account, to the fifth. That is to say, thirty permanent photographic prints from as many pieces of Greek and Roman statuary have now been made from approved plaster casts, with a view to mythology and biography. In the latter category are the well-known full-length Demosthenes of the Vatican and Sophocles of the Lateran, and busts of Herodotus, Thucydides, Socrates, Plato, Alexander, Caesar; in the former, many a masterpiece from the Greek pantheon. It will be remembered that this series is expressly intended to further classical study in the schools,

either by framing or hanging upon the walls, or by keeping in a portfolio for use as occasion arises. The plate sheets measure about 15x21 inches.

From a very full official report to the Minister of Public Instruction on courses of instruction for adolescents and adults, and on popular lectures, it appears that these movements have met with much encouragement from the public in most parts of France. The number of courses, averaging three hours per week for three months, has risen from 7,322 in 1894-95 to nearly 16,000 in 1895-96. Four hundred thousand persons registered for these courses, and nearly three-fourths of that number pursued them regularly and with profit, the majority being apprentices, peasants, clerks, and others whose earlier education had been necessarily deficient. Only about one-ninth of the courses were given for young women separately, and "mixed" courses were comparatively rare. Popular lectures have also grown in public favor, their number having increased nearly sixfold in one year. Of the 61,476 lectures given in 1895-96, about one-fourth were illustrated by lantern views. The *Ligue de l'Enseignement* alone distributed nearly five hundred lanterns and six thousand slides, while it lent as many as forty-eight thousand slides. Considerably more than this was done by the aggregate efforts of two other societies for the advancement of popular instruction, that of Havre and the National Society. Of course, the work has progressed less rapidly in some departments than in others, but it is evident that, on the whole, the movement is eminently practical and successful.

The addresses delivered in the French Senate by M. Alfred Rambaud, Minister of Public Instruction, and by M. Liard, in support of the new University bill, which has since become a law, are so replete with interesting historical and statistical details, otherwise not easily accessible, concerning higher education in France, that we cannot refrain from calling attention to them at this late hour. The addresses are published almost in full in the August number of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*. The same number contains a reply by a Swiss scholar, M. Zund, to Mr. Schofield's article on French and American universities recently noticed in these columns.

As the Corporation of Harvard University is about to set a memorial window in St. Saviour's Church, Southwark, where John Harvard was baptized in 1607, the interior of this edifice is appropriately shown in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September. The editor, Mr. Wm. R. Thayer, also pictures and describes the Queen's Head Inn, Southwark, closed only last year, after flourishing for five centuries, and probably kept by Harvard's mother, who bequeathed it to him, he in turn bequeathing to the college the proceeds of the sale of it; and Emmanuel College, Cambridge, from which Harvard graduated. Shakspeare's brother is buried in St. Saviour's, along with Gower, Massinger, and Fletcher; and Mr. Thayer's conjecture that Shakspeare frequented the inn in Harvard's youth is all the more plausible in view of the Stratford connection revealed by Mr. Waters. The magazine further contains Mr. Geo. S. Morison's suggestive Phi Beta Kappa oration; some curious vital statistics of college-bred men; and the usual miscellany. It seems a pity that the restoration of Bulfinch's fine college chapel in University Building to become the Faculty Room should not be as piously undertaken as was that of the legislative halls in the Old State

House in Boston. The communication on the choice of electives by freshmen deserves serious consideration.

Science was established in 1883 by Mr. A. Graham Bell, who, in conjunction with Mr. Gardiner G. Hubbard, spent more than \$80,000 in sustaining it. The loss involved was so large and so continuous that the generous donors finally felt compelled to withdraw their aid, and publication was suspended in 1894. Later an arrangement for coöperation was made between *Science* and the American Association for the Advancement of Science, in accordance with which the Association agreed to appropriate \$750 annually towards the support of the journal. But, in view of the fact that it has become necessary to take this money from the invested funds of the Association, it has seemed to friends of the journal and of the Association undesirable to continue this appropriation for the present. *Science* now, under able management, occupies a field which it would be discreditable to American science to leave unfilled, and we trust that its claims will be recognized by a renewed support in excess of the impending deficit.

The American resort of the past summer to the Bodleian Library has been very considerable—so considerable, indeed, that the hospitable authorities there desire to make known beforehand to intending readers one of the regulations governing the library which they are in no case at liberty to suspend. Intending readers must come provided with a personal introduction which they can surrender at the Bodleian. When once their introduction is on file, they are entitled to read at Bodley's Library as often as they may revisit Oxford, and as long as they live. The production of a circular-letter of introduction does not comply with the regulations above alluded to, and embarrassments have sometimes arisen the recurrence of which it is hoped the printing of this information may help to forestall for the future.

—The second series of the 'Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' (Washington: Government Printing-Office) begins promptly with volume i., uniform with the first series, and exhausting the letter A in 828 quarto pages. It would be a mistake to suppose that the new series is confined chiefly to indexing magazines or works published since the first series was begun. On the contrary, we observe accessions of some sixteen imprints of the fifteenth century, the oldest being an Avicenna of 1482; and editions of Aristotle from 1500, of Vesalius from 1543, of Averrhoes from 1560, testify to the same careful filling up of the earlier gaps. The rubric Astrology furnishes other evidence, and even that of Apes and Monkeys extends from 1699 to 1893, the former date being attached to E. Tyson's 'Orang-utang sive homo sylvestris. Or the anatomy of a pigmie compared with that of a monkey, an ape, and a man. To which is added a philological essay concerning the pigmies, the cynocephali, the satyrs, and sphinges of the ancients. Wherein it will appear that they are all either apes or monkeys, and not men, as formerly pretended.' On the side of recent publications we may instance an article in an Odessa medical gazette on the disease of the late Emperor Alexander III. of Russia (Alexander the Great, Bonaparte and Cæsar being also similarly considered in other works in this Catalogue); Edward Atkinson on the 'Science of Nutrition'; and all the rapidly growing literature on Appendicitis, which mostly be-

longs to the present decade. Noteworthy are the twenty-four pages devoted to Army, by nationalities. Clearly this great work is going forward on the lines of its projector, Dr. Billings, whose name is succeeded in the preliminary report to the Surgeon-General by that of D. L. Huntington, Deputy Surgeon-General, and Lieut.-Col. U. S. A.

—The third volume of the calendar of the Dartmouth Papers (English Historical MSS. Commission) follows close upon the issue of the second, and includes many papers on America discovered after Mr. Stevens had performed his task. This later issue is necessary to complete the earlier, and has the advantage of printing the papers in full, while Mr. Stevens merely summarized the contents. There is much of interest in the private correspondence of the minister. Garbett of Birmingham complains in 1765 of the bad quality of iron goods made in that place, and adds: "America, the principal market for sale, has long complained of the quality of our nails, and will most unquestionably, if the imposition continues, endeavor to raise works of their own." In May, 1766, Lord Chesterfield urges Dartmouth to strive for an increase of his powers: "If we have no Secretary of State with full and undisputed powers for America, in a few years we may as well have no America." The next mention of America is in 1775, when hostilities had begun, and Rev. John Newton, a regular correspondent of Dartmouth, suggests a day of public humiliation "enjoined by authority," a weapon already used by Jefferson, though with no great confidence in its efficacy. John Wesley gives a dark picture of the industrial crisis in 1775 in England, due to the American troubles; and Granville Sharp writes in 1781 a very strong plea in favor of an immediate peace with America. Our extracts may fitly close with Lord North's brief announcement of defeat in March, 1782: "We are beat completely, and nothing but health and domestic comfort is left, that is worth thinking of. I suppose you know that, notwithstanding the method we took to elude a defeat, we lost the question by 19. General Conway, not contented with carrying the question, moved an address of the House to the King to be presented by the whole House, in order to make the measure as grievous and insulting as possible to his best benefactor."

—The University of Wisconsin has published in its Bulletin Series a monograph of Dr. Victor Coffin on "The Province of Quebec and the Early American Revolution." The author keeps in view two principal aspects of Canadian history during the time of Lord North's administration: first, the institutions devised by the home Government for the recently acquired New France, and, secondly, the part of the Canadians in the contest between Great Britain and her revolted colonies. Both lines of investigation converge to 1774, the year of the Quebec Act. Dr. Coffin enters a strong indictment against this measure, accusing it of exasperating the *habitants* at the moment by its insistence on the compulsory tithe, and of creating the greatest of Canada's present difficulties, the dual system. "I am strongly at variance with the hitherto prevailing opinions; being forced to conclude both that the provisions of the Quebec Act were neither occasioned nor appreciably affected by conditions in the other colonies, and that, far from being effective in keeping the mass of the Canadians loyal to the British connection, the

measure had a strong influence in precisely the opposite direction." "No single step taken by the ministry of Lord North has been more politically disastrous than that which, besides increasing the colonial difficulties of the moment, is mainly responsible for the continued burdening of modern Canadian life with a steadily growing problem of national divergence." We doubt whether, in assuming these positions, Dr. Coffin is quite so paradoxical as he seems to think himself. The Quebec Act has certainly found its apologists, but at the present moment there are few Protestants in Ontario or Quebec who do not at least hold Dr. Coffin's view of the consequences. One would need to cast about a long while before he found a more notable instance of unsuccessful opportunism. Dr. Coffin does good service in exposing the mass of false conception upon which the Quebec Act rests, particularly "the incorrect ideas which Murray and Carleton had fostered with regard to the origin and character of the English already in the Province." His essay is conceived in a broad spirit, and is the fruit of faithful examination. Though somewhat controversial in tone, it handles the weapons of controversy fairly. One singular little slip should be rectified. It is stated on p. 539 that Lord Durham was sent out in 1839. He reached Canada in May, 1838.

—The Rev. Charles W. Mossell's 'Toussaint L'Ouverture' (Lockport, N. Y.: Ward & Cobb) has something to do with its avowed subject, and something to do with the present condition of Protestantism in the island of Hayti. The mixture of these two subjects gives the book a hybrid complexion, but, in view of Mr. Mossell's own experiences, it is not strange that the cause of evangelization should be close to his heart. Though a Roman Catholic, Toussaint L'Ouverture admitted the legal equality of all Christian bodies, and the Government of Hayti still leaves Protestant missionaries alone. The mass of the population, however, are not so considerate, and Mr. Mossell's lot while pastor of the African Methodist Episcopal Church at Port au Prince seems to have been very trying. We are told that on the 23d of September, 1883, he was "rudely and roughly forced into the streets with revolvers loaded and cocked drawn upon him, and with every circumstance of word and conduct shown by those who had him in this condition, calculated to demonstrate their fiendish purpose." Mr. Mossell's biographical sketch of Toussaint L'Ouverture possesses a certain value from the author's intimate knowledge of Hayti and its inhabitants. Otherwise its merit is slight. The narrative is based on Gragnon Lacoste, and abounds in rejoinders to the depreciation of Saint Rémy. Mr. Mossell makes small pretence to the graces of literary style, and the carelessness of the proof-reader is simply shocking. Yet the robustness, chivalry, and breadth of the great black's character make themselves felt through this jejune account of his struggle to emancipate his race. We cite a specimen of Mr. Mossell's prose: "If it were not that Catharine found herself in a strange land, so different from her native patrie, the remembrance of which strongly binds itself about the heart of the exile, l'ajoupa paternal,—if it were not that she had regrets caused by a cruel separation from the grand lakes, where the copious mangrove trees unite their branches in forming a thick grove,—a forest of sweetest perfume in which one's ears are constantly saluted by the chirping of birds, whose plu-

mage represents a hundred different colors exceedingly bright and beautiful,—we repeat, were it not for these sad recollections added to another, viz.: that while she was free, she was in the midst of her brothers and sisters bowed under the yoke of slavery; the young negress had almost no reason whatever to envy the whites."

—It is nearly seven years since we noticed, with the appreciation which it deserved, the first part of Prof. Paul Fredericq's '*Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Neerlandicæ*,' embracing the documents concerning the persecution of heresy in the Low Countries from 1025 to 1520. We have waited somewhat impatiently for the continuation of the work, while recognizing the magnitude of the labor involved in collecting from all sources, printed and manuscript, the vast aggregate of material illustrating the vicissitudes of the Reformation in the Netherlands during the stormy reigns of Charles V. and his successors, and it is with some disappointment that we greet the second part (Ghent: J. Vuylsteke), which proves to be, not a continuation, but a supplement to the first part, consisting of some two hundred additional documents illustrating the earlier period which the industry of Prof. Fredericq and his students has discovered. Much, however, as we could have wished for the continuation, we recognize the soundness of the author's method in completing as far as possible the mediæval portion before grappling with the sixteenth-century movement and its momentous results, and we find this gleanings of his former harvest full of interest. Especially important are the contributions to the history of Lambert le Bègue and the Béguines, of the Flagellants, and of the Dancing Mania, although these form but a small portion of the varied contents of the four hundred pages of which the volume consists. While thankful, then, for this present instalment, our impatience is by no means diminished for the promised continuation, which, when executed with the same critical thoroughness, cannot fail to throw a new and striking light on one of the most complicated and important epochs of European history.

—The Vienna *Medicinische Wochenschrift* of July 18 contains an interesting article on the hygienic reforms and sanitary regulations introduced in Bosnia and Herzegovina by two female physicians during the past three years. In 1895 the Government appointed for this purpose two women, Dr. Krayevska and Dr. Keck, at a salary of 1,600 florins (\$740) each, hoping thereby to promote the health of the Mohammedans, who constitute about 35 per cent. of the population. The aversion of Mohammedan women to medical treatment by men had hitherto been so strong as to render it almost impossible to apply remedies for their personal infirmities or to enforce sanitary ordinances in their dwellings. It is well known that the prevalence of anæmia among Mohammedan women is due in part to the lack of bodily exercise in the open air, and still more, perhaps, to the exceedingly imperfect ventilation of their houses. Also, the custom of nursing their children for several years is highly injurious to themselves and to their offspring. The patients numbered 1,258 in 1893, 1,382 in 1894, and 1,517 in 1895, and consisted chiefly of the wives and children of merchants, mechanics, peasants, and Government officials. By their tact and professional skill Drs. Krayevska and Keck have won the confidence of the Mohammedans and already suc-

ceeded in alleviating much unnecessary suffering and in reducing considerably the percentage of mortality. The inspection of the houses is now attended with no difficulty, and the general health of the inmates has been greatly improved. The poor are treated gratuitously, and regular reports embodying statements and suggestions are sent to the Government. The two physicians are liable at any time to be sent on sanitary missions to remote districts or assigned to duty in the hospitals. We may add that they were appointed as the result of a competitive examination, and that all candidates for such positions must submit to the same ordeal. Recently a female dentist, Emilie Edel of Vienna, has begun to practise her profession at Mostar, the capital of Herzegovina.

—The sight-seer in the English cathedrals has always found a unique exhibition in the famous circular world map of the thirteenth century which the verger at Hereford shows with such an air of self gratulation. It hangs against an interior wall in one of the side aisles of that minster. It is a celebrated landmark in the broad field of early European cartography, and has for many years been cited as a significant object in the progress of geographical knowledge. After having been the subject of incidental treatment in the great works of Santarem, Lelewel, and Davezac, it was made the topic of monographic study by Beavan and Philott in a London publication in 1874, and a similar study of it by Dr. Konrad Miller constitutes the fourth part of his '*Ältesten Weltkarten*,' now in course of publication at Stuttgart (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). A facsimile was first made of the original map in 1831 for the Royal Geographical Society, and a copy of this was made for the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris. Students of a later day have turned to the reproduction made by Jomard, in several sheets. Dr. Miller has based his facsimile, which is nearly half-size, on Jomard, correcting from the plate used by Beavan and from a lithograph published in 1872 by Stanford, which followed a photograph by Havergal. The original has been resorted to in doubtful cases where the legends are more or less obscure. There are fifteen or twenty other maps of these early periods of map-making, including the Ebstorf (of which Miller also gives us a reproduction), which are necessary to the study of the Hereford map, and Miller has collated its legends with the corresponding ones on such maps. There are nearly two-score early writers associated with this age of geography, and Miller's notes show that he has used them faithfully. One can little need hereafter to go beyond such careful work as this monograph presents.

AN INTRODUCTION TO JURISPRUDENCE.

A First Book of Jurisprudence. By Sir Frederick Pollock, Bart. Macmillan & Co. 1896.

"THIS book," writes Sir Frederick Pollock, "is addressed to readers who have laid the foundation of a liberal education and are beginning the special study of law." For this public it forms an almost perfect manual. Our object in reviewing it, however, is not so much to insist upon its merits, for these will, we may be certain, receive rapid and extensive recognition, as to take the book as the sign of a revolution which will gradually remodel the study of law in England. The re-

volution is nothing less than this, that law works are becoming a part of English literature. The '*First Book of Jurisprudence*' is well adapted for the use of students of the common law; it is a manual which every one should read, but it is also, what few manuals are, and what very few English legal treatises have hitherto been, a book which every man of liberal education can read with pleasure. It is the work of a writer who is the master of his subject; it is the work of a trained thinker; it is the work of a man of letters.

That Sir Frederick Pollock has complete mastery of his topic is proved, if proof were needed, by the mass of useful and appropriate information with which his 300 and odd pages are filled. In this matter the '*First Book of Jurisprudence*' resembles Prof. Freeman's admirable little work on the '*Growth of the English Constitution*.' From either book a student may learn with ease more than is worth knowing about the elements of an important subject than can easily be gathered from lengthy and ponderous volumes. From Mr. Freeman's book, which could easily be read through in the course of a morning, one can learn what are the essential features of the English Constitution when surveyed by a man versed at once in English history and in English politics. From Prof. Pollock's manual, which also can be read through in a few hours, a student may gather not a mere analysis or outline of jurisprudence, but, what is far better, a substantial knowledge of the ideas which lie at the basis of every treatise of law. He may learn much about the nature of law and the different aspects in which it may be regarded; he may learn what is meant by justice according to law and what are its characteristics; he will, unless we are mistaken, rise from the reading of the work with a sense rarely derived from books, that legal terms and legal discussions have reference to real things, and are connected with the most interesting questions, both of a practical and of a speculative character, presented to us by the transactions of every-day life.

One example out of a score may show what we mean. Nothing in law appears to beginners more technical and conventional than the creation of those artificial persons known to English lawyers as corporations. A student with difficulty realizes that a corporate body is a different being from the members who compose it; and when he accustoms himself to the idea of artificial persons, he fancies that legal subtleties have led him far away from the realities of life. A perusal of Sir Frederick Pollock's chapter on persons, which consists of but fourteen short pages, altogether dispels this delusion. That corporations are in one sense the invention of lawyers is of course manifest; but what is more important (and not equally obvious) is that the creation of artificial persons corresponds to a natural tendency of the human mind—it meets a natural want. It is arguable, at any rate, that the corporate or quasi-corporate existence of the family or the state was recognized by mankind before they fully recognized the separate existence and claims of individual personality. However this may be, popular ways of thought create artificial persons more rapidly than does the invention of lawyers. States, nations, clubs, firms—even, to borrow an apt illustration of our author's, newspapers—are treated in ordinary discourse as personages; our readers, we have no doubt, praise or blame the politics of the *Nation* as freely as they bestow commendation or censure upon the conduct of President

Cleveland or Lord Salisbury. The truth is, that in England, at any rate, lawyers have found it difficult to recognize with sufficient rapidity the existence of artificial persons who are known to every man of business. In the world of trade a firm has long been a person; according to English law a firm is nothing but John Smith and Thomas Brown, who make up the firm. The creation of companies with limited liability is a tardy attempt to give personality to partnerships, and, even as it is, English rules of procedure are in parts rendered complex by the difficulty felt by lawyers in admitting that a firm is a person. To personify is in fact the tendency, it is even the weakness, of human nature; it is a profound remark of our author's, which might serve as the text for an essay, that the personification of nations has given rise to many dangerous fallacies or delusions.

Here we see that Sir Frederick Pollock is not only an excellent lawyer, but also a trained thinker. His book is suggestive of many ideas which he wisely, in order to keep within the proper limits of a manual, does not follow out. Everywhere we feel that he could say more about his topic than he does. Nothing gives a greater sense of a writer's power. There are excellent and instructive authors who illustrate their subject with appropriate examples, but who yet leave upon the mind an impression that they have said everything that they had to say; that in the facts which illustrate their statements we have in reality the measure of their knowledge. Something of this kind, for example, occurs to the reader of Dean Stanley's works. The Dean is a charming writer, his illustrations are apt and interesting, but his works leave on the minds of his readers no sense of reserved power. It would be unjust to say he is shallow, but it is not unjust to say that one touches sometimes the bottom of his knowledge. The truth is, that the Dean was an admirable writer, but he was in no sense an erudite author or a powerful thinker. With Prof. Pollock it is far otherwise. His last book is a manual for students, yet at every turn it arouses thoughts or speculations in the minds of readers who, in age at least, have no longer the right to number themselves among students.

As an illustration of this, let us take the one part of Prof. Pollock's speculations with which critics, with whom may be numbered the present writer, find it difficult to agree. His book does not contain any direct attack upon Austin. With his usual good sense, he has obviously felt that controversial matter ought as far as possible to be kept out of the pages of a manual. But it is perfectly clear to any one who reads the chapter on the nature and meaning of law, that Prof. Pollock does not agree with and does not value highly the Austinian definition of law, or, we conjecture, the system of analytical jurisprudence of which it is the result. What should be noted, however, is that the whole chapter on the nature and meaning of law, with which should be read the admirable disquisition on justice according to law, can be studied by the most ardent Austinian with the greatest profit. At every turn he will find suggestions well worth consideration, and he will, we suspect, come to the conclusion, not that there is no difference between Austin and his critics, but that there is no cause for internecine warfare between them. Austin forced upon a world which at first was unwilling to heed him, an aspect of law which as far as it went is important. Subsequent

writers, belonging more or less to the historical school, have revealed to the world the extent to which rules or habits which are not, according to Austin's definition, in strictness laws, are in fact obeyed; they in their turn have done good service in calling attention to another aspect of law, namely, the way in which it is developed. The moment has nearly come, if it has not already arrived, when it will be seen that there is no opposition between the two different ways in which law may be regarded. This reconciliation will assuredly be aided by our author's thoughtful speculations. "Law, for the practical purposes of lawyers and citizens, means the sum of those rules of conduct which courts of justice enforce, the conditions on which they become applicable, and the manner and consequences of their application." This is a statement in which lawyers, whatever their speculative views, may agree. It is precisely one of those wise summaries of admitted facts which one finds in the writings, and only in the writings, of men who bring to the consideration of difficult and controverted questions habits of wide and systematic thought.

Our author writes essentially as a man of letters. Nowhere is this better seen than in the second part of his book, on legal authorities and their use. It may compare, and the comparison is in itself a high compliment, with Blackstone's introduction to the study of the law of England. Each writer has attempted to set before students the elementary facts (e. g., the nature of the common law, the difference between common law and equity, the meaning of case law, the effect of precedents, and the like) which it behooves any man to master before he enters upon the study of the law of England. Each writer has, according to the knowledge of his day, done his work admirably; each has chosen interesting topics and expounded them in an interesting manner; each has realized that there ought to be no divorce between law and letters. That the two should ever have been separated should, to all lovers of the law of England, be a subject of great regret, but the existence of the separation is past a doubt. If we except Blackstone's Commentaries, hardly a single work which fifty, forty, or even thirty years ago was placed in the hands of law students could be called literature. Smith's 'Leading Cases,' White and Tudor, Smith 'On Contract,' the whole overgrown library produced by the industry, the knowledge, and the verbosity of the family or clan of Chitty, were in some respects excellent works, from which, by dogged industry, it was possible for a learner to derive much valuable information. But they were not literature; they had no more to do with the world of letters than have Bullen and Leake's 'Pleadings' or Daniel's 'Chancery Practice.' They had, indeed, far less of literary flavor than have large portions of the law reports. It is in the great judgments of eminent judges that you must look for such literary gifts as have been offered on the shrine of law. There have never been wanting English magistrates who could express in admirable English the principles of English justice. The judgments of the late Lord Bowen contain the latest judicial contributions to the literature of England, but Lord Bowen was only not among the first of Englishmen of letters because he was quite among the first of English judges. But, as we have said, the writers of legal text-books have, with the exception of Blackstone, till quite recently contributed nothing to literature. The permanent reputation of Sir Henry Maine will, it

may be suspected, rest upon his having shown that supreme literary skill could be applied to the discussion or elucidation of legal problems. Whatever be the defects of his 'Ancient Law,' it is one of the most charming of books. The idea that literary talent could be applied to the service of law was, when Maine's 'Ancient Law' appeared, new and original. It has also been preëminently fruitful. A whole series of works have, since 1861, been produced by authors who, though marked by great differences, have all given to legal treatises the character of literary works. Sir James Stephen's 'History of the Criminal Law,' Anson's 'Law of Contract,' Markby's 'Elements of Jurisprudence,' Holland's 'Jurisprudence,' Pollock's 'Law of Torts,' Pollock and Maitland's 'History of English Law,' and other works which might be mentioned, are all results of the same movement. The writers in each case follow, as every good writer ought to do, the bent of their own genius; but they each and all clothe clear thought about law in the form of lucid expression. The 'First Book of Jurisprudence,' small though it be in size, is in reality no mean addition to the series of which it in truth forms a part; it is the latest, though it will not be the last, result of the effort to take up again the work of Blackstone, and to make the literature of English law a part of the English world of letters.

A WOMAN ASTRONOMER.

Maria Mitchell: Life, Letters and Journals.
Compiled by Phebe Mitchell Kendall. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1896. Pp. 293.

THIS book presents a combination that one would not have expected beforehand to occur. It is the life of the first American woman who attained eminence in science, and it is also the perfect picture of the ideally happy life of the woman who devotes herself to scientific pursuits. Like the history of those nations which can be accounted happy, it is short, if one measures it by fulness of incident. The fortunate circumstance that Vassar College was founded within the active period of life of the one woman to whom a college professorship was due, secured for her the freedom from anxiety, together with the constant quickening of interest, that only a college professorship can give. With no unpleasant cares and responsibilities, with almost uninterrupted leisure for the prosecution of her work (for the number of students who chose to study astronomy was naturally never large), and with the inspiration that must have come from being the intellectual centre year after year of the cleverest of the college girls—what more favorable conditions can one imagine? Those who remember the expression of keen aliveness combined with perfect content of Miss Mitchell's later years, will easily believe that hers was one of the enviable existences of this poor world. How purely silly it is on the part of many unthinking reviewers to attribute the half-unhappiness (for it was no more than that) of Kovalevsky to the fact that she was a mathematician, and not to her fiery, unsatisfied Russian temperament, it is not worth the while to point out.

Maria Mitchell was born on the island of Nantucket in the year 1818, of a family which had been Quakers for many generations. Her ancestors had been obliged, on account of the intolerance of the early Puritans, to flee from Massachusetts and to settle upon this island, which belonged at that time to New York. Her father had been from his early youth an

enthusiastic student of astronomy, at a time when students of astronomy were few and far between. To the children, accustomed to seeing observing going on every pleasant evening, astronomy was the most important subject in the world. One by one, as they became old enough, they were drafted into the service of counting seconds by the chronometer; if any one had asked a little child in this family who was the greatest man that ever lived, the answer would have come promptly, "Herschel!" It was only in such an atmosphere that a girl could become a scientific woman in those days, but how much energy went still to the making of that rare creature is shown by the fact that of all the daughters of the scientific men of that day, this one alone devoted herself to her father's pursuits.

Another happy circumstance assisted in deciding her career, and gave her the recognition which is so indispensable an incentive to long-continued effort; before she was thirty, she had discovered a comet. Moreover, Frederick VI., King of Denmark, had offered a gold medal to the first discoverer of a telescopic comet; and although his son, who had now succeeded him, did not take the interest in science that his father had felt, he was nevertheless persuaded to carry out his father's design in this instance. There were difficulties, however, on account of certain formalities in regard to the announcement of the discovery not having been complied with, and as Miss Mitchell did nothing to urge her own claims, the whole thing would have fallen through had it not been for the energetic measures pursued by Edward Everett, who was at that time the President of Harvard College. Finally, the medal arrived, a year and a half after the discovery of the comet. She received letters of congratulation and friendly interest from many of the principal astronomers in Europe, and this sympathetic welcoming into the ranks of the real workers in her chosen subject was doubtless effective in fixing her interest in her career. No man can ever fully realize the feeling of isolation and repression which was the lot, up to thirty years ago, of those few active-minded women who were afflicted with an unnatural desire to aid in the accumulation of the world's store of exact knowledge.

At this same time (1848), Miss Mitchell was unanimously elected a member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences—the first and only woman who has ever received this distinction. The following year she was invited to act as computer for the American Nautical Almanac, and she retained this position for many years, in addition to her other duties. Six years of her life were devoted to the unremitting care of an invalid mother. After the mother's death, Maria and her father removed to Lynn, and from there she was called to fill the chair of astronomy at Vassar College upon its opening in 1865. This appointment, which the trustees of the college, with rare good sense, rendered effective by the construction of an admirably furnished observatory, gave astronomy a prominence at Vassar which it has had in but few of the colleges for men. Some years before, Miss Mitchell had been presented, through the exertions of Miss Elizabeth Peabody, with an equatorial telescope—the gift of the women of America.

A large part of the volume before us is occupied with the diary and letters concerning Miss Mitchell's first and second European tours. Both times she met and enjoyed friendly intercourse with the most important scientific men of the day. There is a great

deal of interesting anecdote and comment upon character, but we have space to give only a taste of it. She was surprised to find that the important rooms in Leverrier's observatory were the reception room and the ball-room; astronomy had to be made a feature in French social life in order that the Government might be induced to expend money upon it. There was much bitterness at this time between French and English astronomers on account of the rival claims of Adams and Leverrier to the discovery of Neptune, and Leverrier seems not to have needed this fillip to his natural moroseness. Lady Herschel said afterwards that he was one of the very few men whom she had ever asked for an autograph; he was her guest at the time and he refused. In view of the reputation of American children in Europe, it is interesting to know that his little boy of nine promenaded about the room with his hands in his pockets, and occasionally yelled and was ordered to keep quiet. In Rome Miss Mitchell was shown over the papal observatory, through intercession with Cardinal Antonelli (but she was not allowed to be accompanied by her maid). Mrs. Somerville had sought this privilege in vain. Father Secchi had no staff and no prescribed duties; in spite of the history of Galileo, which forms the background of Italian astronomy, "no bolder views emanate from any observatory than those which Secchi sends out." Miss Mitchell would gladly have waited until dark to see the nebulae through the extraordinarily pure Italian atmosphere, but the father informed her that her permission did not extend beyond the daylight, and conducted her to the door, adding, "But we live in a civilized country." Alexander Humboldt (alone of the Europeans she met) showed a minute acquaintance with American affairs, and was deeply interested in the question, which was then up, of the admission of Kansas as a slave State.

"He said that we had gone backwards, morally, in America since he was there [what would he say now?]; that then there were strong men—Jefferson, Hamilton, Madison. The three months he spent in America were spent almost wholly with Jefferson. He urged me to go to see Argelander on my way to London; he followed me out, still urging me to do this, and at the same time assured me that Kansas would go all right [would that he could give us that assurance now!]."

Admiral Smyth (the English Astronomer Royal) assured her that no family was quite civilized unless it possessed an encyclopædia and a telescope. The English gentleman uses both for his amusement. Frequently he hires some young astronomer of talent who comes to his observatory and makes a name for him. Then the Queen confers the honor of knighthood, not upon the young man, but upon the owner of the telescope. But Miss Mitchell's most delightful visit was at the house of Sir John Herschel. She found him an old man, much bent, and with perfectly white hair standing out in every direction, but full of clever talk, and "a better listener than any man I have met in England." Lady Herschel was a noble-looking woman, and exceedingly fresh and fair for a woman of her age. They were surrounded by eight of their twelve children, all fine-looking and remarkably intelligent.

"Lady Herschel is the head of the house—so is Mrs. Airy; so, I suspect, is the wife in all well ordered households! I perceived that Sir John did not take a cup of tea, until his wife said, 'You can have some, dear.' Mr. Airy waits and waits, and then says, 'My dear, I shall lose all my flesh if I don't have something to eat and drink.'"

Miss Mitchell was much shocked at hearing Prof. Sedgwick say, regarding Miss Herschel's marriage to a Gordon, "Such a great match for her!" "What match can be great," she asked, "for a daughter of the Herschels?" When dining with Whewell, she found him very severe upon American writers; Lowell's comic poems she found that he took as representing the ordinary language of the American people. Wishing to say that something in the way of sight-seeing would be done thoroughly, he turned to her and said, "We'll go the whole hog, Miss Mitchell, as you say in your country."

"I thought his severity regarding Americans reached really to discourtesy. I got a little chance to retort, by telling him that we had outgrown Mrs. Hemans in America, and that we now read Mrs. Browning more. He laughed, and said that Mrs. Browning's poetry was so coarse he could not tolerate it, and he was amused to hear that any people had got above Mrs. Hemans. He asked me if we had got above Homer; I replied that they were not similar cases. Altogether there was a tone of satire in Dr. Whewell's remarks that I did not think amiable. . . . Mrs. Airy said that Dr. Whewell and I riled each other!"

There are here and there remarks exhibiting Miss Mitchell's keen interest in psychological analysis which those who knew her were always struck with. Professor Bond (the elder) was showing her and his son the new planet Neptune, which he had already seen himself.

"It looked precisely like a small star, and George and I both asked, 'What made you think last night that it was the new planet?' Mr. Bond could only say, 'I don't know; it looked different from the others.' *It is always so—you cannot get a man of genius to explain steps, he leaps.*"

"When I was travelling with Miss S., who was near-sighted and kept her eyes constantly half-shut, it seemed to me that every other young lady I met had wide, staring eyes. Now, after two years' sitting by a person who never reasons, it strikes me that every other person whom I meet has been thinking hard, and his logic stands out a prominent characteristic."

It required no small measure of the grace of God to live for more than twenty years, as Miss Mitchell did, a Unitarian of the most liberal type, in an atmosphere where an orthodox belief was regarded as a matter of crucial importance—to be perfectly fearless and outspoken, and at the same time to preserve the unvarying affectionate regard of her colleagues. Towards the end of her diary she writes that she is "surprised to find how liberal Congregational preaching has become," not only theologically, but also as regards matters of practical aspect. "Dr. Lyman Abbott preached; he said he hoped and expected to see women at the bar and in the pulpit, although he believed that these would always be exceptional cases." This was indeed a change from that protest arousing sermon to the graduates of a former president of the college, in which he characterized the duties which awaited them as duties of "the home, the church, and society," absolutely ignoring not only the other occupations which Vassar women were already taking up (including Miss Mitchell's own), but also the entire profession of teaching. It is a change as regards women which Miss Mitchell's life has probably done more to bring about than any other single event of the time. This she accomplished even more by what she was than by what she did. The secret of her power over those who knew her is justly described in the words of the present president of Vassar:

"But it would be vain for me to try to tell just what it was in Miss Mitchell that attracted

ed us who loved her. It was this combination of great strength and independence, of deep affection and tenderness, breathed through and through with the sentiment of a perfectly genuine life, which has made for us one of the pilgrim-shrines of life her study in the observatory of Vassar College, where we have known her at home, surrounded by the evidences of her honorable professional career. She has been an impressive figure in our time, and one whose influence will live."

Eliza Pinckney. By Harriet Horry Ravenel. With facsimile reproduction. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896. 8vo, pp. xi, 331.

It was a happy selection to make Eliza Pinckney the first representative from a Southern colony among the women of colonial and Revolutionary times. Not only does she belong to a very early period of Carolina's history, but she lived through the Revolution and was closely identified with the material development of the colony. While much of the interest in the book is of a social character, there is even more of an economic nature, which is unusual in the case of a woman. Left in charge of three plantations when she was sixteen years of age, she managed the complicated business as well as could any planter; and, possessing a spirit of initiative united to great perseverance, she was keen to undertake new cultures, and brought most of them to a successful issue through many disappointments.

The earliest glimpse caught of this practical farmer was about 1740, when she was settled seventeen miles by land from Charleston, in the midst of six neighbors, with whom she lived in great harmony, and in charge of her father's plantations. What society existed, and it must have been little, was "genteel"; but the poorer people she describes as the most indolent in the world and very wretched in their poverty. In the city it was better, and the occasional visit of a warship—for the troubles with Spain and pirates kept the colony in a state of suspense—added a pleasant feature of social activity. For this our young lady had little time, and her schedule of occupations points to the engrossing tasks intrusted to her charge. She studied music, French, shorthand, and law; neglected no detail of the plantation, taught her negroes to read, and maintained an extensive correspondence on social and business topics. But her great passion was gardening, and it is her engrossment in agriculture that gives a more than ordinary interest to her life. Through her care the cultivation of indigo was introduced into Carolina from the West Indies. After some years of experiment a little success was attained, and, according to the custom of the day, a bounty was asked of the Provincial Assembly, and a second bounty of Parliament. To spite the French, who were then supplying England with this product, a liberal bounty was granted, and the culture spread through the colonies, giving what had long been wanted, a staple for export to be raised on the highlands. Rice alone had given a large foreign trade, but now indigo rose to great importance. She also attempted to grow ginger, cotton, lucerne, and cassava, planted a fig orchard, having first reckoned her "expense and the prophets" to arise, and laid out a plantation of oaks.

In 1744 Miss Lucas married Charles Pinckney, called Chief Justice, though he never received a royal commission, who served as the colony's agent in England. Two sons, Charles Cotesworth and Thomas, were the issue of this marriage, and both attained to promi-

nence in public life. After fourteen years of married life Eliza Pinckney became a widow, and, having returned to America, devoted herself to agriculture and the management of the Pinckney estate until her death in 1793. It was a long and useful life, and more could be made of it from the economic standpoint than Mrs. Ravenel has made of the social. One statement made by the biographer deserves attention. She pictures American slavery as a great and beautiful missionary enterprise: "Conscientious people did their best to transform the cargoes of savages brought to their doors into the decent, capable servants whom we remember. Of their wonderful success it is needless now to tell. In 1861 the men of the Confederacy left their women and houses in safety under the care of the Christian people whom they and their forefathers had rescued from a barbarous heathenism." And she returns to the subject on a subsequent page, dwelling upon the charge committed to Southern women:

"They had to train and teach a race of savages—a race which had never known even the rudiments of decency, civilization, or religion; a race which, despite the labors of colonists and missionaries, remains in Africa to-day as it was a thousand years ago; but a race which, influenced by these lives, taught by these Southern people for six generations, proved in the day of trial the most faithful, the most devoted of servants."

It is natural to ask why, if the slave-trade was "a rescue," the missionary enterprise was finally condemned and disowned even by South Carolina itself? But the more curious process is to compare Mrs. Ravenel's quiet delineation of "the decent, capable servants" produced by slavery with the severe denunciations heaped upon that very class by her kinsman, General Thomas Pinckney (son of the lady whose letters she is editing), in his "Reflections," issued in 1822; and to contrast her delineation of the "Christian people" whom it created with the frank statements of another kinsman, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, in his "Address before the Agricultural Society of South Carolina" in 1829. What if she had written, as he writes, "There needs no stronger illustration of the doctrine of human depravity than the state of morals on plantations in general"? Then, after describing the pernicious influences which surround the younger negroes, he adds: "Their advance in years is but a progression to the higher grades of iniquity." Is this the Christian people whom Mrs. Ravenel describes as the result of slavery, and is this the "wonderful success"?

What was thus said by prominent men of South Carolina was simply repeated from the other slave States. Bishop Meade, in 1834, urges the religious instruction of those in bondage on the ground that they are degraded and destitute. The Kentucky Union for the Improvement of the Colored Race in 1834 characterizes the colored population as "semi-heathen." The Rev. Charles C. Jones of Georgia, in his book on the "Religious Instruction of the Negroes," published in 1842, says: "Such a general corruption of morals as would blast the reputation of any white community is known to exist among them, and yet how unaffected are we by it! Indeed, the habit of our minds is to consider them in a state of moral degradation." The simple truth is, that no comparison can ever be made between what the negroes were in slavery and what they were, or might have become, in freedom, because the very existence of slavery, and especially that in this hemi-

sphere, practically degraded all Africa. The general testimony of African travellers, from Mungo Park to Stanley, was that wherever an African tribe existed that had not been reached by the slave trade it was apt to be—as in case of the Yorubas—modest, honest, industrious, ingenious, even intelligent; but that where the slave trade had reached, it crushed out all these qualities and left what Mrs. Ravenel calls a race of savages. That many Southern women and some Southern men labored devotedly to ameliorate this state of things is conceded by all; and they had fortunately to deal with a peculiarly affectionate and trustful race with much natural religious or at least emotional tendency. But that the institution of slavery was in itself essentially demoralizing, both for black and white—this fact rests on too long a series of testimonies from slaveholders themselves to be now disregarded.

An Examination of the Nature of the State: A Study in Political Philosophy. By West-el Woodbury Willoughby. Macmillan. 1896.

MR. WILLOUGHBY'S work is based upon a course of lectures delivered at Johns Hopkins University. It is a systematic treatise in which the nature and "justification" of political authority are examined. The problem of the justification of the State or of human sovereignty is one of those questions, inherited from the middle ages, which have really lapsed into insignificance, though for every writer on government, especially those, like Mr. Willoughby, of a metaphysical turn of mind, it still has a good deal of fascination. The first 118 pages of the book are occupied with a careful examination of the various attempts made to justify the State; the work is very well done. The author shows that the State rests on no basis but its utility. Its remote historical origin we have no means of tracing; its divine origin is a mere assumption; the theory that it rests on consent or compact is contrary to fact. Moreover, when we ask what *right* has the State to infringe upon man's natural freedom, we are involved in the difficulty that there are no rights, in the strict sense of the term, antecedent to the State. All rights that we know anything about are either legal or moral. The right of the State to govern man cannot be derived from Law, for Law is a creature of the State. If it is a moral right, it must rest on the same basis on which all morality rests, and this must be either conscience, or divine revelation, or utility. Of course, consent has nothing to do with morality. Now, conscience will not do as a basis for the State, for conscience does not enlighten us further than to let us know that we ought to obey the State if it is right to do so; revelation answered only so long as a direct and miraculous connection was believed to exist between human and divine authority. This leaves nothing but utility as the basis for the moral right of the State to interfere with man's natural freedom.

The author's argument—the foregoing is our paraphrase of it—deserves careful study. The whole matter might perhaps be rendered clearer if the State were left out of view altogether, and the problem were stated in what are really its true terms. What justifies human authority of any kind over human beings? The State is only one constant and conspicuous form in which this authority is exercised. There are several others. To take

a very simple case—how do we justify the despotism of the captain of a ship on the high seas? It is by no means clear that all captains of all ships in all ages of the world have had this power. Travellers describing voyages on the Mediterranean and Adriatic to-day speak, we believe, of the want of authority in the captain as a noticeable fact. But the great maritime nations of modern times early introduced absolute despotism as the rule on the high seas, and the position of the captain is the same on the ship of a democratic country like the United States as on any other. Why? Simply because on no other plan can a ship be navigated with complete safety.

Civil authority rests on no other basis. By no other means except the knowledge that there is a reserve of human force at hand to put down disorder is order maintained. The sheriff and his posse, the police, the militia, the army and navy, are merely agencies for preserving order against either domestic or foreign foes. All this is perfectly clear when we rest government on a utilitarian basis. A hundred years ago the whole problem was still involved in the utmost obscurity, partly because speculation on such subjects was still in its metaphysical stage.

Mr. Willoughby does not seem to us to have altogether freed his mind from the influence of metaphysics. He continually personifies the State, and talks about its having a will of its own. This is metaphor; it is this sort of personification of the State as a human being which is at the root of much of the flimsiest Socialist speculation. A State is a person only in the same sense that the Erie Railroad, or the Mormon Church, or a city or county is a person. The State consists of the persons who carry it on, and consequently the question whether business which concerns the public had better be transferred to the State is not a merely abstract question, but also a practical one, depending on the conditions and nature of the business and the character of the persons who constitute the State. Should the United States take over the transportation business? is a question capable of discussion. But to determine whether an abstract State, produced in an abstract community, should take over an abstract railroad, is another matter. No doubt the tendency of the absorption of private business in general by the State is a matter which may be discussed with profit; we know from observation that the concentration of power in the hands of officials tends to produce certain results, that as a rule business is best managed if managed by those who are directly interested in it, etc.

Mr. Willoughby's examination of Austin's system (which he generally adopts), and incidentally of the question of the location of sovereignty, is interesting, though we cannot say he advances matters much. For ourselves we feel no logical difficulty in the view held by most lawyers that a State in this country is sovereign as to some subjects within the same territory in which the Federal Government is sovereign as to others. A more difficult question is, What do we mean when we say that any State is sovereign? Do we mean that sovereign power resides in its government, or in the electorate which produces the government? Austin says we mean the electorate. Mr. Willoughby would have us believe that sovereignty is exhibited whenever the "will of the State" is expressed. To us this seems pure personification. The will of the State is expressed by the sheriff whenever he levies an execution, but

nobody would contend that the sheriff had sovereign power.

A History of Banking in All the Leading Nations. Vol. II. New York: The Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin. 1896.

THE second volume of this great work contains three treatises. The first, on the History of Banking in Great Britain, is by Mr. H. D. Macleod, and the comparative importance of the subject makes it not unreasonable that it should occupy two-thirds of the volume. So far as the facts of English banking history are concerned, perhaps no more competent narrator than Mr. Macleod could have been employed, although we have not observed that he has brought anything of importance to light that had not previously been known. But those familiar with Mr. Macleod's works do not need to be told that he could not resist such an opportunity as this to display his peculiar theories of credit and value at inordinate lengths. As these theories are already accessible to the public in Mr. Macleod's other works, it seems injudicious on the part of the editor of this history to give so much space to their repetition. Fortunately, however, these theoretical discussions are assigned a place by themselves, so that the reader can study the facts of banking history without being obliged to deal at length with the Macleod theory of credit. Perhaps, however, we should say that this is by no means Mr. Macleod's opinion; and that he is nowhere chary of expressing it.

The second of these treatises, which is on Banking in Russia, is by Mr. Antoine E. Horn, late editor of the *Journal de St. Pétersbourg*. It is in agreeable contrast to Mr. Macleod's rambling dissertation, and is in every respect a model of financial history. We can only say of this brilliant essay that it records the results of the delusive theories of money and banking that have prevailed in Russia as everywhere else. There is literally nothing new in it; the absurd and disastrous and dishonest expedients that have been resorted to in Russia have been repeatedly tried, many of them in our own land. The demand of the Populists that money should be issued by the Government directly to the people on the security of land and personalty has been complied with, and with the results that might have been expected. The complaints and outcries of Mr. Bryan have been heard in Russia, and the adoption of the gold standard there has been opposed in language with which we are familiar. The course of the Government, however, in its dealings with foreign creditors has been on the whole honorable, in modern times even punctiliously so.

The third treatise, on the History of Savings Banks in the United States, by Mr. John P. Townsend, appears to us to be quite inadequate. Like Mr. Macleod, he indulges too much in theorizing and in moralizing, and his array of facts is not only meagre but ill arranged. While we cannot praise this essay as history, it is just to add that it contains a valuable collection of statistics and legal principles and requirements. The subject, however, deserves treatment by a writer possessed of more literary skill than Mr. Townsend displays.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Andrews, Byron. McKinley and Howart. F. T. Neely.
Anstey, F. The Statement of Stella Maberly. Appletons. \$1.25.

Asbach, Julius. Römische Kalligraphie und Verfassung des Reichs. Cologne: Du Mont & Schauberg; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Barcus, J. S. The Boomerang; or, Bryan's Speech with the Wind Knocked Out. New York: J. S. Barcus & Co. 50c.
Bartow, Annie K. The Sign of the North Star. Whitaker.
Bates, Arlo. Talks on Writing English. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
Becerra, Ricardo. Essayo Histórico Documentado de la Vida de Don Francisco de Miranda. Tomo I. Caracas: Imprenta Colón.
Benedict, Anne K. The Hathaways' Sister. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society 75c.
Bible Illustrations: A Series of Plates Illustrating Biblical Verses and Antiquities. Henry Frowde.
Biological Lectures. Delivered at Wood's Hall. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$2.15.
Björnson, B. The Fisher Lass. Macmillan. \$1.25.
Blondelle-Burton, J. Denounced: A Romance. D. Appleton & Co.
Bonus, A. Collatio Codicis Lewisiani Rescripti Evangeliorum Sacrorum Syllaborum cum Codice Curoliano. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
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Bunker, H. C. Love in Old Clothes, and Other Stories. Scribners. \$1.50.
Burnett, Mrs. Frances H. That Lass o' Lowrie's. New ed. Scribners. \$1.25.
Byington, Rev. E. H. The Puritan in England and New England. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$2.
Carlton, W. The Old Infant and Similar Stories. Harper & Bros. \$1.25.
Chambers's Mathematical Tables. D. Van Nostrand Co. \$1.75.
Clarke, C. C. The Riches of Chaucer. 4th ed. Macmillan. \$2.
Clarke, W. H. Cheerful Philosophy for Thoughtful Invalids. Reading, Mass.: E. T. Clarke & Co. 50c.
Cochrane, Robert. The Romance of Industry and Invention. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.25.
Collingwood, Harry. The Log of a Privateersman. Scribners. \$1.50.
Compayré, Gabriel. The Intellectual and Moral Development of the Child. Part I. Appletons.
Crockett, S. R. Sweetheart Travellers. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.50.
Crow, Martha F. Elizabethan Sonnet-Cycles. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.50.
Culbertson, Anne V. Lays of a Wandering Minstrel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Daudet, A. Recollections of a Literary Man. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. \$1.
Davenport, H. J. Outlines of Economic Theory. Macmillan. \$2.
Dickinson, Emily. Poems. Third Series. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.25.
Englische Auswanderung. Nordamerikanische und Brasilianische Einwanderung. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Field, Eugene. The Holy Cross, and Other Tales. Songs and Other Verses. Second Book of Tales. Scribners. Each \$1.25.
Fischer, F. D. Betrachtungen eines in Deutschland reisenden Deutschen. 2d ed. Berlin: Julius Springer.
Forbes, Archibald. Camps, Quarters, and Casual Places. Macmillan. \$1.75.
Fortnum, C. D. E. Malolice: A Historical Treatise on the Glazed and Enamelled Earthenwares of Italy; also Some Notice of the Persian, Damascus, Rhodian, and Hispano-Moresque Wares. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 2 guineas.
Garnett, Richard. Dante, Petrarch, Camoens: CXXIV Sonnets. London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day.
Goddard, F. B. Giving and Getting Credit. 3d ed. F. T. Neely. \$1.
Gollancz, Israel. Cymbeline. Pericles. [The Temple Shakspeare.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45c.
Goltz, Baron von der. The Conduct of War. Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.
Greenough, Prof. J. B. and Klittridge, Prof. G. L. Select Orations of Cicero. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.40.
Grissom, Arthur. Beaux and Belles. Putnam's. \$1.
Harvey, C. M. Handbook of American Politics. St. Louis: I. Haas Publishing Co.
Henderson, Prof. G. R. The Development of Doctrine in the Epistles. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 50c.
Henty, G. A. At Agincourt. With Cochrane the Dauntless. On the Irawaddy. Scribners. Each \$1.50.
Hobbes, J. O. The Herb-Moon: A Fantasia. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.25.
Hope, Anthony. The Heart of Princess Osra. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.50.
Hopkins, E. P. Handbook on the Law of Real Property. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Hopper, Feodor. Bilder zur Mythologie und Geschichte der Griechen und Römer. Vienna: Carl Graessner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Horsaday, W. T. Two Years in the Jungle. Scribners. \$2.50.
Hudson, Prof. W. H. Studies in Interpretation. Putnam's. \$1.25.
Hume, Fergus. The Crime of the "Liza Jane." Ward, Lock & Bowden. \$1.
Humphrey, W. Selections from the History of Alexander the Great by Quintus Curtius Rufus. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hutchinson, J. W. History of the Hutchinson Family. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 2 vols. \$5.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Venice. Harper & Bros. \$1.
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